

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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The Immigrant in American History

BY CARL WITTKÉ, PH. D., OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

In the summer of 1918, thirty-three Americans, representatives of as many racial and national groups, made a pilgrimage to the tomb of Washington, to pledge allegiance anew to the country of their adoption. Recently, the Roosevelt Memorial Association discovered that the old Roosevelt homestead in New York was now the home of the firm of Podolsky and Goldenberg. News dispatches of the recent monarchist *coup* in Germany stirred someone to make the discovery that Wolfgang Kapp, five-day ruler of Germany, was the son of a prominent New York "Forty-Eighter," who had left the Fatherland in search of greater liberty. Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, usually prominent in the story of American "Big Business" and material prosperity, occasionally attracts attention as the home of the Bach festival, and the historic trombone choir playing its chorals from the belfry of what was once the religious home of quaint Moravian pioneers.

News items like these compel us to reflect upon the complexity of American society, and bring to mind the grand central theme of American history, the contact of successive immigrant tides with the New World environment; and the interaction of racial characteristics and geography. Other examples, almost without limit, could be given to illustrate the influence of the dozens of racial groups which have helped to mould the life and standards of the American nation. Yet this phase of United States history has never been sufficiently investigated by those interested in research or exploited by those who are teachers. The influence of environment upon the settler has been, for a generation, adequately stressed by that vigorous cult of scholars who claim for the frontier atmosphere, and for "the New West," perhaps more than their proper share as determining forces in United States history. We have, until very recently, almost wholly neglected the other side of the problem of this interaction of racial and geographical factors, and very little has been said of the peculiar reaction of the various racial groups to the new environment, and still less of the many things they brought with them to affect and determine much of our political, economic and social development.

The war brought us face to face with the problem of our polyglot population, and produced an energetic corps of Americanization workers, who toiled arduously, sincerely, and sometimes almost hysterically, in the laudable cause of making "100 per cent Americans." It will be extremely unfortunate, however, if our interest in this phase of the problem

closes our minds to the need of studying and appraising the real contributions of the different racial groups to American life. Indeed, it would seem that true Americanization can never be intelligently carried out until we have first seriously investigated what the foreigner brought with him, and the effect he has had on our political and social history.

In one sense, the whole colonial period is the story of various waves of immigration from the old world to the new, but of course, interest attaches mainly to the non-English elements in the colonial population. A study of the names upon the muster-roll of Washington's Army or in the first Census, will convince anyone of the great number of non-English foreigners there were in America in colonial times. New England Puritans were never very hospitable to those "who walked another way," but in the South, and particularly in the middle colonies, the immigrant played an important role in colonial affairs. The Huguenot influence is rather difficult to trace, due to the rapid assimilation of this race element, but nevertheless the number of French names prominent in our early history is quite appreciable. There is no such difficulty in tracing the influence of the Germans and Scotch-Irish. The rapid growth of the middle colonies in the half century after 1690 was due largely to immigration of the non-English elements, and the colonial history of Pennsylvania, for example, is full of instances of the influence of the German farmer and the Scotch-Irish frontiersman upon the affairs of the Quaker Commonwealth. The arrival of the German mystics raised problems of religion and government that seriously affected the history of these colonies, and that continue to trouble governments to our own time. In Pennsylvania particularly, the Germans came in such numbers and settled in such compact groups, that they produced that peculiar variety of "Pennsylvania Dutch" who are still so distinct from the native stock in language and mode of life, that the characterizations in the Pennsylvania Dutch stories of Helen R. Martin, or in such plays as "Erstwhile Susan" are still fascinatingly interesting to the "native" American. The Scotch-Irish became the "cutting edge of the frontier," and even in colonial times, constituted a fiercely democratic and agrarian radical group which proved troublesome in many a conflict between the frontier counties and the older East, and of which such disturbances as the Regulator movement in North Carolina, and the Whiskey Insurrection in Pennsylvania, are only the best known examples. Both the Germans and the Irish con-

tributed more than their share to the revolutionary cause, and an examination of the names of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, or the membership of the early Congresses and the Constitutional Convention, will reveal a large percentage of foreign-born.

The first newspapers to function in the political movements after 1789 were edited by immigrants; most of our early public works were directed and planned by foreign-born engineers, and in the field of education the same influences were at work. In the movement for the development of free public schools, the labor organizations probably played a larger part than has hitherto been admitted. This influence is to be traced to the rise of an industrial class of city-dwellers, many of whom were immigrants. The demands that arose from these congested industrial centers may have been just as important in advancing the cause of political and industrial democracy in the United States as any of the conditions that existed or developed on the frontier. Our religious history has been greatly affected and complicated by the arrival of so many foreigners and religious sects which looked upon America as the testing place for methods of salvation or modes of life, many of which of necessity took the form of communistic enterprises. Even in accounting for the great revivals which shook the frontier communities in the early nineteenth century, and which have usually been attributed to the influences of an unconquered wilderness and the peculiar hazards of frontier life, one wonders how much ought to be credited to the high religious voltage the Scotch-Irishman brought with him.

In the nineteenth century, it is possible to trace various waves of immigration, which followed each other at rather sharply marked intervals. The Irish came with a rush in the forties. In spite of the Irishman's much advertised love for the old sod, he became a city-dweller, for reasons which no one has as yet been able to explain satisfactorily. Every city of any size soon had its "Shanty-town" problems. The native politician exploited the remarkable political genius of the Irish, the Irishman came to realize his worth as a political factor in local and national elections, and demanded, very naturally, ever more recognition. General Scott, in 1852, found it necessary to cater to both the German and the Irish vote, and attended mass in the morning and Protestant services in the afternoon, so that he might not offend any of his prospective supporters. The Fenian Movement is but the most spectacular example of Irish influence on American affairs. It threatened for a time to bring serious complications with Great Britain. The Irish question has been recognized in the national platforms of both parties, and in 1920, we had evidence of the interest that Senators and Congressmen could take in the affairs of the Irish Republic, whose "President" found it worth while to tour America in support of the Irish cause. What the Irishman has contributed to the American theater, particularly the vaudeville house, to American wit and humor, to American labor problems and to Amer-

ican political methods, largely remains a matter for future investigation and appraisal.

After the Irish, came the Germans, and most prominent among them, those free thinkers and liberals who left Germany in 1848, after the collapse of the republican movement. In the middle of the nineteenth century, the Germans, as farmers, became an important factor in the winning of the west, and for a period, numerous attempts were made to plant a "German state" within the United States, perhaps in Texas or Wisconsin. The German-language press became important in the middle of the last century, and was an important influence in drawing the German element to the Republican party in the slavery struggle. It has continued a powerful factor in American political contests to the present day. The German vote became the deciding one in the political life of several states, and to the present time, both parties are making good use of the foreign-language press and employ campaign speakers who can address the voters in their native tongue. John Quincy Adams refused to attend a large meeting of Pennsylvania Germans in 1828, which had been arranged so that he might address them in their own tongue, because he believed it unbecoming to the dignity of his office. But more recently, even the politician who is most eager to denounce the hyphenated American at other times, in political campaigns does not hesitate to corral the foreign vote, or even to play off the prejudices of the various groups against each other.

The Germans brought the Kindergarten, the Turnverein, the Sangerfest, the Continental Sunday, and the ideas of personal liberty which were perhaps necessary to temper the gloom of Puritanism. Milwaukee became the "Athens of America," a leader in art, music, and the theater, and a beacon light of culture to break the monotony of the American frontier. It was a Bostonian who wrote—"From Yankee Doodle to Parsifal in less than seventy years is the record of German influence on the development of musical taste in America." The influence of the foreign-born on American music—orchestral, chamber and opera—can hardly be over-estimated.

The Scandinavian element selected the West and Northwest for its home. Even today, a corner of Iowa is known as "The Scandinavian Northwest," and one can find at least seventy-five names of Minnesota Post Offices so Scandinavian that they defy all efforts of the English tongue to pronounce them, and it is possible to travel in the Dakotas for miles and miles without leaving land which belongs to a Scandinavian. Like the German, the Scandinavian has been an important factor in bringing the west under the plough. Politically, the Scandinavian element has been classed as "rock-ribbed" Republican, and that party has catered to it by political patronage, special campaign speakers, and advertisements for the Scandinavian press. But even the Scandinavian, due to economic grievances, has found it possible occasionally to break with his old political affiliations, and the experiment in state socialism, conducted by the Non-Partisan League in Dakota, is to a large

extent supported by the foreign-born. Indeed, both political and religious radicalism in this country has frequently received its original stimulus and support from the immigrant classes.

During the last generation, the character of our immigration has so greatly changed that it has caused alarm and dismay among many "native" Americans. We are therefore perhaps more familiar with the economic, social and political problems which the Slav, and the East and South-European in general, have brought to America. But here also much of our information undoubtedly rests upon prejudice, rather than scientific investigation. The news of the recent Steel Strike contained many allusions to the influence of these new arrivals on our industrial life, but the reports seldom told the whole story. Most of these new arrivals are well organized in racial or national societies, and in some cities, they exercise real political influence. The propaganda for a new Czecho-Slovak Republic was to a considerable degree "made in America," by Czech societies in the United States. The Federation of Italian Societies of America apparently urged and instructed its members to vote against the Democratic candidate in 1920, due to dissatisfaction with the European settlement after the war,—a course dangerously suggestive of the unwarranted political activities of the recently dissolved German-American Alliance. It is perhaps too early to estimate the contributions of these new arrivals to American life, but no one can fail to see the tremendous influence they have had on our industrial problems, or the political power they are beginning to exercise.

The reaction of the "native American" toward these various foreign groups is equally interesting, for nearly every group, in the beginning, caused some alarm among those already here. In colonial times, during the French and Indian War, some were inclined to look with dissatisfaction upon the German sects whose "tender consciences" would not permit them to participate in war. Franklin was disturbed by the clannishness of the Germans in Pennsylvania, while Penn's secretary was displeased with "the swarms from the Hibernian Hive," who tended to become "a distinct people from His Majesty's subjects." The repressive measures of John Adams' presidency were not wholly the result of war hysteria. Behind the Naturalization Act particularly was a New England Federalist desire to cripple the opposite party, which attracted the foreign-born voter, or the wish to curb the influence of "wild Irishmen," who were found by a Connecticut Yankee to be "the most God-provoking Democrats on this side of Hell." In the forties, the Native American movement broke out with great violence. It was directed against various classes of immigrants, but particularly against the Irish Catholics, who were swarming into the eastern cities by the thousands. The Catholic Church for several decades was really an immigrant church, and coupled with the political side of nativism there was a fundamental antagonism to what seemed a foreign ecclesiastical power. The result was a series of political conflicts over the questions of public and

parochial schools, curricula, taxation, office-holding, etc., which made the campaigns of the forties and fifties in many localities the most violent in our history. The Know Nothing movement was a revival of this nativist agitation, and under the guise of such secret orders as "The Order of the Star-Spangled Banner," it assumed such strength that it promised for a time to displace one of the older major political parties. In the South especially, it threatened to become the successor of the Whig organization. The Southerner had come to realize that the foreign-born population of the North often held the balance of political and economic power, and was, of course, decidedly anti-slavery. Furthermore, contrary to the popular notion, there were some Southern cities in Louisiana and the border states, where there was a real immigrant problem, and where the foreign-born almost equalled the native stock. The Know Nothing movement was largely anti-Irish, and anti-Catholic, although the anti-Catholic aspect was never much emphasized in the South. But it was also anti-German in some sections, while on the Pacific coast, in the same general period, Irish Catholics and other European stocks were banding together in a nativist movement which had as its object the expulsion of the Oriental immigrant. The Know Nothing party disappeared as rapidly as it had arisen, broken into fragments by the slavery controversy. It was a curious fate that Know Nothings and Germans and other immigrants were united a little later under the banner of the Republican Party, but it was a union which required the most skillful steering of the politicians to bring about. The A. P. A. movement in the nineties, such orders as the "Guardians of Liberty," and some aspects of the recent revival of the Ku Klux Klan all illustrate that the spirit of political nativism is not dead, even though it certainly lacks the vigor of earlier days.

The student and the teacher who interests himself in this hitherto neglected phase of our history has an almost virgin field before him, and can labor with the zeal and fervor of a pioneer. It is true that several of our racial groups have had their historians, but even the best of these have hardly made a beginning, while in some cases, their work shows so much of "the will to believe," that one hesitates to accept their results as entirely dependable. A teacher who interests himself in this side of American history can hardly fail to make his course attractive, and he who desires to continue to enjoy the stimulus that comes from productive scholarship, can find the subject and the materials for his research close at hand, if he will but delve into the history of the foreign group he finds in almost any local community. He will be serving the cause, for it is only after such an intensive study of many localities has been made, that we can begin to write and speak with authority and certainty on this important phase of our national history.

The Window of World History—and the Educational Vista

BY PROFESSOR ELDON GRIFFIN, UNIVERSITY OF OREGON

"That there's the window, and the thing oot side the window—yon's the world."—Jenny, in Barrie's *The Wedding Guest*.

"Professors at Oxford University say of the American Rhodes scholars . . . that they . . . are deficient in scholarship in a wide sense. They seldom settle down to a long spell of steady work." "The boys in the expeditionary force, who were fortunate enough to spend some time at the English universities, were told that they did not, over there, 'take courses' or study textbooks, but 'got up subjects.'" These words, attributed to a leading American university president, point to scrappiness as one of our educational weaknesses.

That "students from the high schools of the state seem to know no history at all when they come to college as freshmen," is the gist of the opinion of the head of the department of history in one of the western universities.

Professor Clifford H. Moore, chairman of the Committee on Instruction at Harvard, in speaking of the general final examinations in the college, says that they secure "'concentration' in related subjects" and that they encourage "the mastery of *subjects* or *fields* rather than of courses."

"Valuable as these books are, they are not what I want for the course in World History . . . Asia and other 'outlying' regions are of such consequence to us today that we must understand their . . . history. This means that we have to take an entirely new point of view and shift the old emphasis."

The reader naturally gathers from the foregoing lines the idea that our methods of instruction and of study are inadequate. In no field is this feeling of dissatisfaction more justified than in history, where aims seem to be confused, and even vague ideals are only partially realized. Professor Emerton, in his series of delightful essays, "Living and Learning," alludes to the absence of any general course in the curriculum of which his courses have been a part for so many years, and indicates the need of the student's reading such an extensive range of material that the parts of historical knowledge may be organized as a whole. Perhaps some of the reasons for the introduction of a course in world history at the University of Oregon are apparent. A description of that course, so far as it has been carried through, is offered here, with other more or less pertinent remarks, for the thought and criticism of readers.

Although the idea of the course is not new the emphasis and the handling of material are different from the older surveys of "universal history." Consequently there is a certain joy of exploration and even of creation for the teacher. In the first of the two-year courses, with three meetings a week, the attempt is made to trace the development of life to the modern era, well past 1600. The second of the two courses will bring the story to the present. While experience

shows that Wells' "The Outline of History" does not fulfill all the requirements that one would impose, it is, nevertheless, used as a text—supplemented by the solid volumes of "orthodox" historians, none of which, however, has the really necessary point of view. Although Mr. Wells leaves the reader in no doubt as to his interesting opinions, no sensible reader is in danger of confusing them with facts. They suggest problems for students to think over, and furthermore are subject to comparison with the tacit, unexpressed opinions of the academic writers. However, when a professional historian produces a better *world history* the present writer will welcome it and urge its use.

The course is intended to meet the needs of three classes of undergraduates, roughly: those in other departments who, having had little history in school,¹ wish to make up the deficiency; those who come in to history courses to get something that relates in a historical way to their major subject, journalism for example; and those who as history majors wish to round out their knowledge. For the first two groups the course is in a special sense a *service course*. On the one hand such a general service course is related to similar college courses in world literature, general law or jurisprudence, and comprehensive surveys in other fields; on the other hand it is similar to the newer high school courses in general history, general science, "condensed" mathematics, etc. Certainly when such a course in world history is safely installed in the high schools, preferably in the last two years, one of the reasons for the existence of the corresponding course in the university will have gone. The other reasons will, I fancy, remain, for the course aims to do something more than re-edit high school graduates.

Of the series of exercises in the course the reading is the *pièce de resistance*. In each week a minimum of a hundred pages of reading is required. This is checked, because even the best-intentioned of students finds something else of more consequence than reading that is simply suggested. When we have a different goal for the student, the general final examination in the *subject*, perhaps, rather than examinations in the different courses, such checking may not be necessary; even at Oxford however the student has the responsibility of reporting periodically on his work to his tutor. An outline is provided which gives the weekly lists of topics, with the required reading in texts and sources, followed by extensive bibliographies from which the student ordinarily selects some material relevant to his major subject or to some other special interest. This outline also describes all special exercises, such as term papers, maps, etc.

The question of a more extensive syllabus has arisen, and indeed a very detailed and well-arranged list of topics, with the important information relative to each, would be a splendid aid in the organization of material, but it would surely tend to become an

intellectual crutch.² So far the requirement has been that each member of the course prepare his own syllabus. There are mistakes, but the information that is organized is apt to stick. The students' own summaries of material, and the notes on which they are based—whether taken from reading, lectures, or other sources—are inspected and criticised during the early part of the year. It is no small gratification to hear one perplexed student after another announce that he is beginning to see the light—and with eyes that he can claim as his very own, not the instructor's. Colleges are criticised because they "do not prepare students for anything"; here is one thing for which they can be trained,—the assimilation, organization, and control of information.

As indicated, the part of the required reading which is not in the texts is expected to relate to the student's major subject or to some other approved interest. Special attention is given to this in the bibliographies, and the world history in the library, accessible to the class, invites them to follow some one subject continuously, as well as browse.

The treatment of topics is only roughly chronological. The experimental divisions of the course follow, for the period closing with the early part of the seventeenth century. This is only an approximately accurate description of the stopping point, for it is impossible to have one's treatment of developments in all the different parts of the world come to a close in exactly the same year or even in the same decade—nor is this necessarily desirable. A few of the reading assignments are included.

1. The making of our world and the making of men.
2. Early thought—races and languages of mankind.
Required Reading—
Wells—Outline, chs. 11-13.
Breasted—Ancient Times, ch. 1.
Additional References—
Atkinson—Primal Law.
Avebury—Prehistoric Times.
(About forty other references to books and articles follow.)
- 3-4. The dawn of history—Indo-European peoples; the first civilizations (Sumeria, Babylonia, Assyria, Chaldea, Egypt, India, China and the East), Aegean peoples—early writing—early religion and government—early social organization, etc.
5. The Hebrews and their neighbors.
6. Rise and conflict of Greeks and Persians—the Medo-Persian empire—Greek conquest of the Aegean world—Greek kings, nobles, and tyrants—repulse of Persia.
- 7-8. Greek thought life—age of Pericles—Athens vs. Sparta—Spartan leadership—inter-state conflicts and prostration of the Greek world—post-Periclean culture.
Required Reading—
Wells—ch. 22.
Breasted—chs. 14-18.
Source Readings—
Bakewell—Source Book in Ancient Philosophy.
Botsford—Source Book, ch. 17.
(References to Botsford and Sihler, Fling, Thallon, and Webster.)
Additional References—
Abbott—Pericles, chs. 4-8, 14-18.
Blümner—The Home Life of the Ancient Greeks.
(About fifty references follow; the better texts and the larger histories are included.)
9. Alexander the Great—Philip and the rise of Macedon—Alexander—expansion and extension—"receivers" of Alexander's empire—culture of Alexandria.

10. Guatama and the rise and spread of Buddhism—India and Eastern Asia.
- 11-12. Rome and Carthage—beginnings of Rome and of early Republic—conquest of Italy—rise of Carthage and rivalry with Rome—Punic Wars and the Roman conquest of the Western Mediterranean world—world dominion and degeneracy.
13. A century of unrest and revolution—end of the republic—peace under the empire of Augustus.
14. The imperial successors of Augustus—revolution—division of the Empire—barbarian invasions and the "fall" of the Western Empire.
15. Beginnings of Christianity—Jesus of Nazareth—the first Christian foreign missionaries and the extension of Christianity—Constantine and Christianity—control by the Roman Church over the western nations.
16. Justinian: his work and his neighbors—empires and religions in Asia through the time of Mohammed to the conquests of Jengis Khan: Syria, Persia, Central Asia, India, China, Japan, etc.
17. Mohammed and Islam—conquests and the Caliphate.
- 18-19. Medieval Christendom: Papacy, monasteries, missions—Charlemagne and his empire, feudalism, conflict between Emperors and Popes—the Crusades—nature and position of the medieval church.
- 20-21. Asia and Mongol Empire of Jengis Khan and his successors—Mogul Empire in India—beginnings of European contact.
- 22-24. Rebirth of Western civilization in the Renaissance: medieval towns, business, books and culture, universities—and in the Reformation: system of Charles V, Martin Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, etc.—beginnings of the wars of religion—entrance of America into history—explorations in the Orient.

Now there is no necessary rigidity in such a distribution of material as this, and every instructor has the pleasant opportunity of organizing as he sees fit.

In the small section groups which meet once a week for a short paper and for discussion the best work of the course is done. There the instructor simply acts as moderator, and by so doing keeps in touch with the realities of the course. Naturally a very busy teacher feels that such work can be farmed out to an assistant, but in such a course unity is necessary. If a man is unable to handle all the sections each week he ought at least to arrange to take each of them once in three weeks. This applies with particular force to colleges and universities of average size; in large institutions where the graduate assistants are experienced and make a point of attending the lectures of the professor a different plan may very well be in order.

Experience indicates that instead of the present arrangement of two lectures to one hour of discussion the proper division of time should be two section meetings to one lecture. Although there is no perfectly satisfactory text in world history the basic reading which can be found to suit most of the subjects is fairly complete, and this lightens the burden placed on the lectures. In one section meeting little more can be done than the fixing of the very essentials in the mind of the class. It is important that time be secured for discussion of the merits of numerous books; it is desirable that each person doing additional reading according to his own interests be allowed an opportunity to give some expression to his thoughts beyond the brief notes made on his weekly reading card. It is good to see students finding that they can make distinctive contributions to discussion. In

the course of a year each person who seeks some continuity in the outside reading of successive weeks should have a chance to develop a classroom personality, a positive attitude toward subject matter rather than the too prevalent passive disposition. A second section meeting would contribute to this end. Moreover the questions which the members of the sections raised would, in many instances, provide a basis for practice in running down facts and finding solutions of problems, or "cases."

The two lectures as given under the present dispensation are designed to supplement the reading or to present certain material from new angles—they are supposed to be a part of the teaching offensive. Where anything can be left to the reading and discussion this is done. But the lecture has a place; it is here for example that in the early part of the year the teacher who is converted to the religion of current events and the "meaning of past history for the present" has a chance to throw lines of interest back from the present to the past and to make an attempt to secure the interest of the class, by linking up distant ages with contemporary events and problems. Even more conservative teachers can safely use such a scheme. It would seem that after the first few weeks the course itself holds interest sufficiently. Of this troublesome topic something is said subsequently.

The lectures emphasize the contributions of various races to civilization and attempt to connect the work of the course with the various major subjects and professions—art, law, medicine, etc. Organization is stressed; unless this is done the true purpose of education is ignored. Of course, a favorable case can be made out for almost any idea, as professional holy writ can always be cited. The writer feels convinced, however, that the keen interest of many students in the relation of history to the major or to the professional subject, and of these to history, is more than suggestive. It is indicative of the existence of a means of vitalizing the history curriculum in a remarkable way, a means apparently not sufficiently employed. It points to the wisdom of emphasizing the major subjects throughout the period of study; and of requiring a student to concentrate so heavily in his chosen field that if he is to do well he must go over to science and literature and what not with a "professional" purpose. Scattering for the mere necessity of "distribution" is too often a waste of time. "Getting off" this or that requirement leads nowhere. Naturally we shall use the terminology, or the demonology as some would have it, of courses, requirements, distribution, "a little of everything," and the like, until emphasis is placed on a general examination, or a progressively graded series of examinations,³ which will test a student's command of his chosen *subject* in its various relations.

The first few lectures of the year deal with history in its larger, or general, aspects,⁴ geographic features, social tendencies, the place of the artistic impulse, and similar matters. These factors are called to attention during the term, with reference to specific cases and facts. They are not forgotten on

examinations. Such a method need not degenerate into the teaching of the instructor's pet hobbies or social theories; the citation of actual events simply reminds the student that such forces operate, and it is then his business to use the "case method" from that point on, drawing his own conclusions if he draws any. Other types of lectures will be noted in the brief list included below. All a teacher can hope to do is to select suggestive topics, more or less representative.

Lectures of the first term:⁵

"History"—a series as described above.

The chief periods and the outstanding personages of history—a summary sketch.

Contributions to civilization of the various ancient peoples of the Near East.

The battles of Marathon, two worlds in conflict (just before Armistice Day).

Middle and Eastern Asia to the Christian era.

(The daily round of an Athenian.)

The successors of Alexander.

The Jew in History.

A brief sketch in one or two lectures, or on a printed sheet, outlining the various periods or phases of growth, development, and decline in the history of the world is valuable for the purpose of fixing in the minds of students the "topography" of the course, mountain peaks and valleys so to speak. This should be something definite and concise, something that can be memorized. It is less important to make sure that the class consider *all* of the essential points than that they learn well what they do consider, in order to have pegs on which to hang later details. The lectures on makers of history (one of the Scipios, for example, or the Scipio family) give a chance to the devotees of "inspiration" to achieve their purposes without doing too much damage. Indeed a draught of this kind of wine often does good.

The presentation in a lecture of some very detailed historical problem may serve as an antidote to the supposed danger of superficiality. It is not likely that a student who has been made to realize the difficulty, and the fascination, of the "mining" of information regarding the Cretan civilization, or the spread of Mithraism in the Roman empire, for example, will hold too high an opinion of his own stock of knowledge. It is here that one of a number of ways of showing what the "historical method" is presents itself. Nowadays one of the supposed advantages of "distribution" is that it gives the victim an idea of the "scientific method," the "historical method," the "feeling for literature" and so on. It is important to define what we mean. If by instruction in any particular "method" we mean the teaching of "how it has been done" then some of the ordinary courses taken in the different fields for purposes of distribution give this training; if however, we regard the doing of some constructive piece of work, however simple, as a characteristic feature of the "method" of any academic subject—with at least some attention to such matters as observation, verification, and organization—among the different elementary courses, only those in the sciences tend to bring the student very near to the goal.⁶ But what student of science,

for example, coming into an elementary course in history—ordinarily the only kind open to him—for the purpose of working off distribution requirements ever gets more than a fleeting glance at the real historical method? In far too many instances most of his time is spent in the assimilation of some new bits of information in a limited field. Such work has merits of its own, but why do we insist that the learner is getting something which he does not get? Even the casual reading of source books is not enough. Some of the exercises assigned in world history are described. These are designed to give even the elementary student an attitude of mind and a method that are at least remotely akin to what he gets in the laboratory. The type of detailed lecture referred to above and the discussion of historical method are analogous to the experiments which the professor of chemistry gives in the course of his lectures, while the exercises performed by the students correspond in a general way to what members of an elementary course in chemistry or physics do in the laboratory. Of course, no attempt is made to create a perfect analogy, but there is a suggestion in the comparison. Before these term papers and exercises are discussed reference may be made to the objection that too much is being expected from the class, in consideration of the small number of "hours" of credit. Possibly. But experience proves that if a subject is tolerably interesting the more an instructor expects the more he gets. Nor is this the principle involved in putting the price of one's property high with the expectation of having to compromise. It is good to see signs in some quarters of a tendency to get away from the ratio of two study hours to each period spent in the classroom. Two hours should be a minimum rather than a maximum. While they are sowing, students grumble and cause the instructor to weary in well-doing, but when the harvest time comes at the end of the term there is much rejoicing over the fruits of their labor.

That the real question involved in the assignment of term papers in such a general course in history is different has been suggested. Can one hope to give in a brief year what those who are likely not to take more work in the department have a right to expect from "history"? The answer would seem to be yes. But most curriculums are not designed with this in mind. The division of the history courses into graded groups—introductory and advanced lecture courses, seminar courses of various grades with special courses for special purposes, such as the location and use of historical materials in the library, the study of current affairs, and so on—all this is useful for the history major or for some person who can take two or three courses in the department. But, since other students need similar training, certain exercises in the world history course are designed to afford it.

First, for everyone, comes the reading of one book or parts of different books, relating to a special interest, after the fashion of the weekly collateral reading. The report on the reading is a summary, with criticisms of the book drawn from the best sources and information regarding the author. Direc-

tions and notes on materials are supplied in the outline. Persons who want to do more, and there are some, are urged to read further. Such work trains the elementary student to test and appraise new volumes in a preliminary way; what is more, it fosters the reading habit, that stranger in our midst. The best of these reports can be read to the class, for some of them will be astonishingly well done. The reading of these reports is useful and informing to the instructor, frequently providing a guide to the most valuable parts of certain books that are on his "waiting list."

The assignment for another term has to do with the history of a selected region or people, from ancient times to the present, or with a particular period or movement. Again, there is training in the location and organization of materials. History majors are naturally encouraged to choose a topic to which the department devotes no special course. A short select bibliography is prepared after the student has consulted the more obvious sources of information, such as the card catalogue, the bibliographies in the various general texts, encyclopædias, co-operative histories (e. g., *The Cambridge Modern History*), and similar works. Attention is paid to the form and arrangement of the bibliography. The particular references which are to be read are starred or otherwise indicated, and a simple outline of the various phases of the subject is worked out. Emphasis is placed again upon those things which relate to the major subject, to the coherent extension of the individual's own special content of knowledge. The report follows. Naturally it smacks of encyclopædias and textbooks, but it means more than that—by way of requiring observation and selection of material, verification, and organization. Occasionally new interests are aroused; for example, the reading of parts of anthologies of the literature of the country or period in which interest has been shown, means that the way is open to future private reading of an organized sort. "It is hoped that this exercise will add new meaning and permanence to the general outline of history, and that it will provide an abiding and agreeable intellectual interest." Only time will tell.

Some teachers would prefer to assign considerable quantities of biographical reading, and nowadays we are reminded that the case method, which has been taken over from law to business training, should be applied specifically to academic subjects, even in the introductory stage. The Dean of the Harvard School of Business Administration has called the attention of the President to the question of a transfer of the method to the College. It is worth thinking about. So far only advanced students in history have been able to use any system corresponding to this method. Some problems could be given at an early stage. This idea has perhaps been implicit in the foregoing paragraphs; the writer is inclined to believe that the first week or two of an elementary course, such as world history, might well be spent on some carefully selected and limited problem, for the solution of which the library had all the necessary materials. Examples might be suggested by the instructor's studies or by

such volumes as George's "Historical Evidence" (pp. 221-223); a good case is Hannibal's passage of the Alps. Full directions could be given. Then at different times other problems might be assigned, with increasing diversification and decreasing help, until each person could be expected to handle independently a simple problem. The teacher, who, in the regular discussions is willing to "follow the gleam" of interest which appears now and then, can provide practice for the members of his class in answering each other's questions and settling each other's difficulties. The fallacy of the reasoning of those who would have all history studied by the case method seems to be that they ignore the fact that law and business as treated in graduate schools are professional subjects, and that if the mastery of principles and method is placed at a higher premium than content the latter will surely be added in the pursuit of the different callings. Except for graduate students and, possibly, for undergraduate majors in the department, this is not true in history and in many other academic subjects. It is the needs of the average undergraduate which must be kept in mind in a world history course. History is taken by most persons for the sake of content as much as for method; perhaps it is a fair distinction that in this subject, in contrast to professional subjects, the chief concern is primarily with topics rather than with cases, in the technical sense.

Not unrelated to cases and problems is the controversial matter of current events. There are those who feel that current events have no place in history courses. Then there are those who feel that one ought to make all history (except the most advanced) hinge on current events. Again there are those who think that a separate course in current events should be offered, a course in which the study of varied and suggestive events and problems would involve sufficiently numerous "excursions" to the past to insure a proper gain, perhaps after the fashion of Driault's "Le Monde Actuel." Finally there are those who wish simply to make sure that the content of knowledge which their individual courses offer is linked up with the present in an intelligent way, the wish being conditioned by the belief that to attempt to understand the past in terms of the present is incorrect, especially if the past has not already been comprehended and judged in terms of a still earlier past. Believing that if any course should "link up," world history should, the writer experimented with weekly assignments to his sections, each time one or two members of the class being expected to present the relevant facts in the recent history of the regions under consideration during the week. Even more important than the stock of information thus made available to all members of the class was the training afforded individuals in digging out this information—in the use of such materials as the *Supplement to the Political Science Quarterly*, *Current History*, *The Manchester Guardian Weekly* (and similar publications), *Who's Who*, *The Statesman's Year Book*, *The New International Year Book*, etc. Equally effective would be the arrangement early in the year of one or two typical exercises which all members of the class

would be expected to perform, with a view to acquainting each person with the proper materials—for suggestions are often not enough. Then each month all of those in the course would be tested on the news supplied in *Current History* or in some other periodical, knowledge of the past being called for whenever it seemed to bear upon recent occurrences. Such a method, however, is applicable to all history courses, with a minimum expenditure of time. Beyond this the writer feels that it is not legitimate to go, for current events, if not attached to a fair knowledge of the past, fall away from the memory like autumn leaves from the trees.

The study of current affairs requires the use of geography, and geography suggests maps, which figure in most history courses. Early in the year this class is asked to prepare a large and comprehensive map exercise for the present world, which provides a point of departure to the past and a basis for later comparative map studies. When an able second year student enters the course with the generous idea that Egypt is a part of Asia one's zeal for geographical knowledge either is extinguished or leaps into a mighty flame. Baikal, Delhi, Angora, Tasmania, Alsace-Lorraine—these become anathema or else a religion. No doubt a student forgets much that he places on his map, but he also remembers much that is useful; what is more, he understands more easily his daily reading and comment. It is the instructor's business to see that a large number of atlases are provided and that members of the class really learn how to choose maps and how to use them. This is part of valuable training in the rapid, efficient use of the Reference Room. The present writer is inclined to emphasize Asiatic and Pacific geography, for that has been much neglected.

It is no cause for surprise that many students feel somewhat bewildered when they find themselves confronted by such a tremendous array of material as a course in world history presents; "massive," they call it. The question is, How shall they study for tests and term examinations, and how shall the examinations be regarded? Incidentally the examinations in this course are not limited to the work of the one term in which they come; the course is regarded as a year course, and each test may cover *all* the material previously considered. This represents an attempt very common in some quarters, to get away from learning by piecemeal. It is unlikely that a student who has had to review material three or four times over will fail to see some relations in history, that he will fail to master some parts of it, and that he will any longer believe in the philosophy of cram. One can have very little to say against cramming, however, if one's examination questions are not of the sort which must surely expose it. The examination is presented as an opportunity for the student to demonstrate his ability to organize material and with this end in view lists of questions for study are handed to the class during the first weeks of the year. From these the earlier tests are in large measure made up. Such exercises afford training which makes for an intelligent handling of the tasks that follow. The

comment has been made that such work is hard on the instructor, and so it is, but it enables him to say his nightly prayers without shame. And the students say theirs with more hope. Many people who can do a very good weekly quiz stumble on more comprehensive tests unless trained. They do not see that it is often literally true that the members of the class who make the highest marks are those who remember fewer facts than their fellows. The failures are frequently those who are submerged in a swamp of detail. It is a service to a student in trouble to require him to make out lists of questions of his own and to present them for the instructor's criticism. The final examination in such a course should consist not only of questions drawn up by the instructor, but also of those suggested by the class itself and by the heads of various departments whose major students are in the course. Presumably these men, and even some outsiders, are in a position to say what historical information is most worth having in their respective callings. Such co-operation is worth attempting. Some of the tests given in this course are printed here:

HOURLY EXAMINATION, FIRST TERM

1. Write a fifteen minute essay on (a) or (b) or (c)—one only.
 - (a) The temple in early civilizations.
 - (b) Conflict between nomads and settled communities—with as many examples as possible, and mention of the economic and cultural factors involved.
 - (c) The Jews and Babylon.
2. Identify with reference to location, period, characteristics, work or significance any fifteen of the following—

Nabonidus	Vedas	Lydia
logographi	Shi-Hwang-ti	Seleucids
Scythians	Hyksos	Nippur
Karnak	Hittites	Pleistocene
Judaism	Hiram	Sardis
Zealots	Dorians	Titus
3. Outline the situation in the different parts of the world which have been considered
 - (a) in the year 2000 B. C.
 - or
 - (b) in the year 1000 B. C.
4. State your major subject. Indicate those facts and considerations in the material covered so far which relate definitely and closely to it.

FINAL EXAMINATION, FIRST TERM

1. Write an essay on (a) or (b).
 - (a) A comparison of Assyria in the time of Tiglath Pileser I and Greece at the time of the Peloponnesian Wars with reference to the conduct and methods of war. Indicate the relation of war to, and its effect on, the life of the state and of the individual. Give examples and definite facts.
 - (b) An account of the life of Aristotle and of his contributions to knowledge in its various forms.
2. Identify with reference to location, period, characteristics, work, or significance any *twenty* of the following:

Council of Elders	Athene	Tiglath Pileser I
Sennacherib	Plataea	Erechtheum
Delian League	Cimon	Boeotia
Aton	Hippocrates	Pythagoras
Mustapha Kemal Pasha	Emir Feisal	Aegina
Entablature	Myron	Democedes
Mesozoic	Doric Capital	Inductive and deductive methods
The Academy	Miletus	
3. Answer (a) or (b).
 - (a) Outline the situation in the ancient world in the year 400 B. C. Emphasize the position of Greece. In what important ways was the world situation different in this year from that in 480 B. C.?

- (b) Bearing in mind all the civilization studied, give an account of the history of any *one* of the following: Art, literature (including the drama), science, law and social sciences (including business, politics, etc.), religion and philosophy.

4. Write an account of the history and influence of Athens from the early period to about 330 B. C.

HOURLY EXAMINATION, SECOND TERM

1. Identify any *ten* of the following:

Karma	Gandhi	Dionysius of Syracuse
Magnesia	Nirvana	Ceres
Cheronca	Diocletian	Samnite Wars
Heraclea	Ebro	146 B. C.
Sentinum	Marius	plebiscitum
2. Answer (a) or (b) or (c)—one only.
 - (a) Give a sketch of the history of Roman agriculture and of the Roman agricultural class.
 - (b) Write on the changes in the social composition of the Roman army—causes, meaning, results, etc.
 - (c) Why and how, did the Roman Senate control the legislative and the executive branches of the government?
3. The Indo-European stock and the Semitic stock, 2000 B. C.-70 A. D., a comparative outline.

SOME FURTHER OBSERVATIONS

Some persons may very well be asking, Why not call this sketch of world history, with the parallel course in world literature and thought, "The History of Civilization"? For example, at Columbia University there is a course called Contemporary Civilization, which seems to pass beyond the historical to economic and social problems of very recent times. At Stanford University three brief one-term courses, called "Problems of Citizenship," are given by the departments of economics and political science. At Reed College a broad synthetic course is being developed. Perhaps a more complete course than any of these might be worked out. For the criticism of the various persons who are thinking on this question the following scheme is submitted: a five hour one-year course in the history of (world) civilization (history, in the usual sense, literature, intellectual developments, with some parallel treatment of some social principles) to the beginning of the modern era, and a second one-year course of five or six hours bringing the formal history down to the present, as well as the survey of literature and thought, with a fairly *intensive* parallel treatment of the fundamentals of the social sciences (economics, political science, sociology, etc.). The latter elements should be closely co-ordinated and unified with the historical sections. Either of the two-year courses might be taken without the other, emphasis being placed however upon the second year's work, which might open with a brief sketch of the larger movements in the previous history of the world. A special exercise might involve the reading of some good brief sketch of the earlier period, just as the last term of the first year's survey might include the reading of a sketch of the modern era, for the purpose of completing the outline, which is what most of those enrolled in such a course insist upon. Whether this work could be given by a single person is a question, but one could well afford to spend much time in preparing to make the attempt. There is danger in division. Certainly one man, seeking plenty of counsel, ought to plan and control the course.

The second section of this complete survey would be the practical equivalent of two, and possibly, three, ordinary required courses in history, the social sciences, and literature, and one who had taken the work offered by it could be content to forget about further "distribution," with the possible exception of the required science and English composition. And the latter may be shelved some day when the schools are able to cope with the common problem, and when every college instructor is expected to regard himself as a tutor in correct English. So long as a student can isolate "English" in one classroom he is safe to talk and write as he pleases, but when he finds it shadowing him at every turn he is more likely to come to terms with it on some respectable basis.

The course in world history or in the history of civilization in the broad sense, has a particular interest for the student majoring in history. The general outline rounds out his knowledge and develops his feeling for his subject. It gives him a working command of the machinery, so to speak, and he appreciates the gain. Great gaps in his knowledge of history and related subjects disappear, without the danger of his suffering from that great handicap, the illusion of omniscience. Whether such a person should take the course in his first year depends on circumstances, but ordinarily there would seem to be no reason why it should not be completed early, since the instructor is taking nothing for granted, and since world history draws the attention to the subject rather than to "courses." This is important; it is part and parcel of the scheme of general examinations in the "field," now so much talked of, and suggests such varying expressions as "giving the best brains a chance," "education *de luxe*," "the cult of incompetence," and "education as selection." "The very plan of a general final examination, however, requires that the student shall select his course wisely, do work outside his formal courses, and by reading and reflection co-ordinate the details he has learned into a body of ordered knowledge of his subject, so far as this can be done in undergraduate years. In all this he requires guidance and stimulus." Thus the *Harvard Alumni Bulletin* states the problem. The tutorial system gives guidance; where this arrangement is beyond the means of the institution, and even where it has been installed, the course in world history or in the history of civilization has an important place as co-ordinator. Indeed the instructor in a course of the kind, if given the time that he ought to have, would be under obligation to regard himself as a tutor, who was to teach his students how to handle material and how to assimilate their knowledge. This, of course, is what instructors in introductory courses in the limited fields of European and English history try to do, theoretically at least. It is furthermore the teacher's business to show the student how he himself does some of his own work—we learn by imitation as well as by precept. Many a student, graduate as well as undergraduate, has wished that he might know how some of his professors handled their work with a minimum of lost motion.

Insofar as the course in the history of civilization

is a scheme of organized reading there is no reason why the practice of publishing this reading should not be followed more generally—this applies to many other courses also. If a list of reading included the best books, an intelligent mastery of which would mean command of the outlines of the subject, there would be no reason why the student who had "read up" these books and been examined should not be relieved of the necessity of taking the course, provided he performed some of the special exercises of a technical nature in addition. I use the word "necessity," for if there is to be a general departmental examination, written as well as oral, it ought to mean that those passing it have a fair knowledge of history in general, as well as more highly specialized knowledge in some one field. The following schedules of study, on a three term basis, show what this would amount to. They are selected from plans for such groups as majors in Ancient History, Medieval History, Modern History, Modern European History, English History, (N.) American History, Latin-American History, Asiatic-Pacific History, Social or Intellectual History, and Foreign Service (Diplomacy in particular). Obviously American History would be a part of each schedule, unless it was passed off by an anticipatory examination of the kind suggested above. This same provision might hold for a number of the other courses also.

Ancient History Majors

History of Civilization, Part I, three terms, five hours.
History of Civilization, Part II, three terms, five or six hours.
Ancient History, various courses, four to six terms, three hours.
History of Art, two or three terms, three hours.
Intellectual and Social History, two or three terms.
Philosophy of History, or the History of History, one term.
Historical Method, or the Teaching of History, according to the purposes of the student, one term.
Special work on a chosen subject, two to four terms.

Modern History Majors

History of Civilization, Part I, three terms.
Modern Europe, various fields, four or five terms.
Latin America, one to three terms.
Asia and the Pacific, three terms.
Intellectual and Social History or History of Art, three terms.
Selected branches of economic, diplomatic, or constitutional history, three or four terms.
Historical Material, or the Teaching of History, one term.
Special work on a chosen subject, two or three terms.
(In lieu of certain parts of History of Civilization II courses or prescribed outside reading in literature, political science and jurisprudence, economics and sociology.)

In these schedules the course in the history of civilization by carrying such a considerable part of the load makes it possible to achieve the kind of mastery of the *field* of history alluded to above, and this without preventing a student's taking numerous other courses, in the department or out, which his fancy dictates. This is one of the precious prerogatives of the undergraduate. The term "special work" means reading and investigation, under guidance, with reference to a chosen period, movement, or problem, in all its aspects. It would require the preparation of an essay or a series of essays, the student's own

job. In the largest universities this sort of work is offered in the numerous highly specialized courses, but in the average institution, which is thought of in this article, the curriculum is restricted; it is only by adopting some scheme by which courses are offered in alternate years and in regular sequence that it is possible to give all of the absolutely necessary instruction.

With the value of the special work appears the wisdom of having a common seminar for majors in the department. All the instructors should attend as well. This might be held in the last term or in the last two terms of the senior year. The different senior students would "lecture" and answer questions regarding their own particular studies in different fields of history. The material presented ought ordinarily to be of value to all of those present, especially as it would be more extensive and synthetic than the papers in the usual undergraduate seminars, with which there need be no competition.

Such a heavy concentration in the subject, history or any other, implies that those who are qualified to do university work should know more or less what they are about. Perhaps there is a place for those who, not having found themselves, need a brief opportunity to allow the academic stimulus to play on their minds. It is to be hoped that the time is coming when graduates of secondary schools, in this country as in Europe, will be in possession of that which they are now spending time in acquiring at college, namely, general information, the "fundamentals." Discussion of this point, with the implications for history and for other branches, falls without the proper range of this article. It may be that ten years hence we shall find a thorough-going course in the history of civilization required in the schools. Whatever makes it possible for the secondary institutions to complete their proper work of providing a good *general* education for all, whether the future of the student is to be the law or the laundry, surgery or the sawing of two-by-fours, all this I say, is gain, and gain which need not come at the sacrifice of attention to individual abilities and aptitudes.¹

There is no guarantee that even a perfect high school course would settle our fundamental educational difficulties or that it would "get across" to each student, but it is as much as the state owes to the unwilling learner. We dare not fail to heed the lesson which the so-called "workers' education" has for universities. Higher education in the future is to be a serious, as well as a pleasant, business, and not a social holiday; those who are in the academic departments of a university for cultural purposes, and not with reference to some professional course, are expected to justify their presence there by manifesting a sense of responsibility commensurate with their opportunity. The rigorous training in the mastery of a subject in all its relations to knowledge is likely to expose the frauds and the intellectual slackers or misfits. Citizens of the Republic are asked to spend money on education of a helpful kind; where there is no vision the people perish; and as we come more and more to control the future we need

to have and to heed the vision. If world history or the history of civilization helps to simplify the problem and to accelerate the coming of the better order it has a place. The B. A. degree is a historic thing, and teachers of history should be among the first to defend its honor. Otherwise we shall have to adopt the philosophy of the following quotations, eminently wise in certain respects—"The time has come when a young man should not be expected to spend four years of his life simply to top off his school days with a little extra culture and learning." College "should aid those who go there, to earn their living after graduation." "I believe this school (a graduate department training men for business careers) should be incorporated in the course for an A. B. degree and that that degree should not be required in order to enter" this school. "This changed or revised curriculum should start in the high schools and gradually unfold through the college course." The point of these fragmentary quotations is clear enough; they are taken from an article by a man with both a bachelor's degree and a doctor's degree who finished his schooling over twenty years ago. But the present writer believes that while the creation of professional undergraduate degrees, and in particular the various degrees in science, is legitimate and desirable, in consideration of the needs and aptitudes of thousands of individuals, he is equally convinced that we need some professional schools which will insist upon the B. A. as a prerequisite, in order to make sure that there will be found men to lead wisely—men who on account of ability and vision, and not because of accident or some other excuse, have devoted three or four years to the study of the unchanging things. It were a pity to see all, or even most, of those who major, let us say, in the classics going into departments of Greek and Latin as teachers; such persons are needed elsewhere, in newspaper work, for example, where they can give the public the benefit of their particular type of linguistic and literary training. All points of view are needed in the social composite of life. Were this article, or parts of it, to fall into the hands of the Oxford professors mentioned at the outset they would no doubt wonder what sort of folks American undergraduates were and what had become of all the money spent on education here. They would not realize that much of the education which they accept as the proper contribution of the home and the parents is in this country left to the school, and institutionalized. Perhaps one great function of education today is to train those who can put much of education back in the home. There a large part of it rightly belongs and there the foundation of broad thorough education should be laid. "They seldom settle down to a long spell of steady work." Americans have energy and they have brains. It has been found in one course in the history of the life of the race that this energy and these brains can be enlisted in an unusually vigorous and assiduous application to hard, steady work.

¹One says "little" only in courtesy, for an investigation has showed that a large number of our students have had scarcely any history worth considering in high school or

even in the freshman year at the university, a situation not encountered, of course, by teachers in many universities.

²In reading in later life one is supplied with a bare outline in the table of contents of a book, and the rest of the burden is placed on the individual.

³"Graded" in order to give candidates an idea of what to expect; preliminary tests often give useful training in methods of study.

⁴A page is handed out on which are printed titles of good books on the history of history, the philosophy of history, historical method, the useful bibliographical and "reference" works, etc.

⁵For obvious psychological reasons the lectures follow the related work in the reading; this serves almost as an automatic checking device. Moreover the lecture can be more detailed and more thorough if a definite background

of reading can be taken for granted. One useful device for the stimulation of interest is an exercise calling for the history of the student's name or for a description of the countries from which his ancestors came. Even in the university there are some students who require such simple direct appeals to their interest.

⁶One occasionally wonders whether a person who has gone through the discipline involved in the mastery of any one subject in its various phases actually needs training in the methods of other subjects. Just how much difference there is between the methodology of the scientist and that of the historian and the rest is a question—apart from application to varying content, of course.

⁷See "Reorganization of the Social Studies in the Secondary Schools" by H. F. Taggart in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for November, 1921.

The Columbia College Course on Contemporary Civilization

BY PROFESSOR JOHN J. COSS,¹ COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

During the war, courses on war issues were given in almost all of the colleges of the country. They met with varying success, but nearly all stopped with the spring of 1919. At Columbia, in the Departments of History and Philosophy, chiefly, there grew up the conviction that a course on peace issues was quite as vitally important as a course on war issues. When the idea had been given due consideration it appeared that the departments of government and economics as well as those of history and philosophy, were interested and involved in such a course.

All four departments began in February, 1919, to work on the details of the venture. From the outset the work on the new course was controlled by two ideas: What should the eighteen-year-old college freshman know about the society in which he lives? How can we best present our material, irrespective of the vested interests or long established boundaries of the departments concerned? The first draft of the main outline was completed after six weeks' work by representatives of the departments of history, economics, government, and philosophy. The name of the course, *Introduction to Contemporary Civilization*, came slightly later. Five months were given to the preparation of the detailed syllabus, which in September of this year appeared in a third revised edition.

The purpose of the course is to stimulate informed consideration of the insistent problems of the present. These are grouped as: *Problems of imperialism and the "backward peoples," Problems of nationalism and internationalism, Problems of conservation, Industrial Problems, Problems of political control, Educational Problems*. The study of the problems comes at the end, not at the beginning of the course. Before the

students consider the problems they are given some insight into that human nature which makes and may solve the problems, are introduced to three great instruments of contemporary civilization—the concepts of democracy, applied science, and mass production for world distribution, and are instructed in the role which the nineteenth century played in setting the stage for the present. The first division of the course is called *Civilization and its basis*. *The world of nature* and *The world of human nature* are sub-heads. The second division is *The survey of the characteristics of the present age*, with the following subdivisions: *The historical background of contemporary civilization 1400-1870*, and *The recent history of the great nations, 1871 to the present*. Then come the insistent problems as outlined above. Backward and forward the course is knit together by the consideration of human nature and the complications arising from its varied expression in different geographical, historical, and scientific conditions.

The course is required of all freshmen. It meets five times a week throughout the year, in all about one hundred and fifty times. The staff of eighteen is drawn from the four departments named and from psychology. Each instructor teaches a section of thirty for the entire year. Each instructor goes beyond his own specialty, but this necessity is compensated by the wealth of outlook which he gains. Each instructor, within his own department carries on some advanced special research which balances his program of teaching and study. The course is administered by the Dean of the College and the Committee on Instruction.

The content of the course includes much of the material usually given in first courses in economics, government, ethics and European history. This fact has not led to the departmentalizing of the work of the course, which has as its object not the teaching of any one of these subjects, but the bringing of them all together to throw light on the problems of today. In the four departments the beginning courses have

¹Prof. Coss is Director of the Summer Session and chairman of the group of eighteen instructors in charge of Contemporary Civilization. A *Syllabus* of detailed outlines and references, cloth bound, may be obtained from the Columbia University Press (\$1.25).—THE EDITOR.

been so reorganized as to recognize the work already done, and to build on the broad foundation of the new course.

After a two year trial the course entered its third year this fall with the support of the College staff as a whole, of its own teaching group, and of its past and present students. Student opinion is enthusiastic

and practically unanimous as to the interest and value of the course. It is not an easy course to teach, nor could an indifferent or a departmentally insistent staff give satisfactory instruction, but it is a course which seems to bring together related subjects in an effective introduction to Contemporary Civilization.

Notes on Professional Cold Storage

BY HALFORD L. HOSKINS, TUFTS COLLEGE.

There is little need, even by way of introduction, to call particular attention to the many problems involved in the taking and preserving of professional notes and papers and to the haphazard methods long in use in this connection. Few teachers can be found who are at all satisfied with the plans for notebook work which they require of their students. Still fewer progressive instructors and research scholars exist who have been able to devise means for organizing, preserving, and at the same time having constantly accessible the heterogeneous materials needed in the conduct of their work. Most of the card index systems to be used in writing and research are quite unsatisfactory. Many new and efficient devices have been produced in recent years for business and office use, but manufacturers of such equipment have made little progress toward meeting the needs of student and educator in this respect.

These matters gave the writer no little concern when he came to discover that his college notebooks, which contained (theoretically) the quintessence of four years of college work, were without practical value, although they had been prepared with considerable care. During his first years of instruction he came to the conclusion that any educational materials, to be of permanent and practical value, must not only be so prepared that their meaning would be evident at any time, that is, after they became "cold," but that they must also be so filed that they would always be ready at hand when needed and be so organized and classified that any particular bit of information could be instantly found, without the usual disheartening delay of long and, perhaps, fruitless search. The difficulties to be overcome in devising a note taking and filing scheme which would solve the main problems without producing others equally serious seemed for a long while to be insurmountable. The often spoken complaint that there can be no wholly satisfactory filing arrangement for the student and the instructor would seem to be well founded.

Nevertheless, the writer set about some years ago to attempt to discover some method whereby a great deal of wasted time and effort due to misplaced and frequently duplicated data might be at least partially avoided and greater efficiency thereby obtained. It soon became evident that any such plan would have to serve equally well for the keeping of class notes, lecture notes, bibliographical data, outlines, excerpts, and miscellaneous papers and pamphlets of all kinds.

By dint of a great deal of experimenting, a scheme began to evolve which seemed to satisfy many of the author's requirements. This method, having been thoroughly exposed to the vagaries of a historian's needs for some time, has reached that stage in development where it may be offered, though with considerable trepidation, to a harassed and skeptical world, in the hope that it may be of some service in this or similar form.

The operation of the accompanying suggestions for the preparation and filing of notes and other materials is somewhat difficult to explain on paper since the scheme, for best results, involves the correlation of several features, which may, however, be introduced separately. A possible criticism that the plan is too elaborate and requires too much care in putting it into use may be anticipated here. In answer, it may only be said that the pains required to prepare an indexing arrangement such as the one offered is much more than compensated for by the resulting ease in filing and finding materials. This, in the long run, results in a considerable net saving of time, to say nothing of gains in personal satisfaction, if one attaches any material value to the information filed, and in any event the scheme is not as complicated as it might at first appear.

An old English recipe for rabbit pie begins by saying, "First catch your hare." In this case, the first requirement is a filing box of some size and description. The size must be determined entirely by individual needs and preference and the purpose to be served; and here it may be said that the greater the degree of uniformity in the papers and cards used, the better. It is well to note that filing cabinets and boxes are made in certain standard sizes to accommodate papers of the following dimensions: 3x5 inches, 4x6 inches, 5x8 inches, 6x9 inches, and 8½x11 inches or letter size. It is probably well in most instances to provide a file of letter size for the inevitable typewritten papers, manuscripts, professional correspondence, pamphlets, and the like, and 3x5 inches or 4x6 inches cards or slips may prove essential for bibliographical purposes.

However, the selection of one standard sized sheet for research and lecture notes, or, in the case of a student, for class notes, is a matter of prime importance; for once such a set of notes is thus prepared, it can not be easily changed or co-ordinated with pages of another size. After considerable experi-

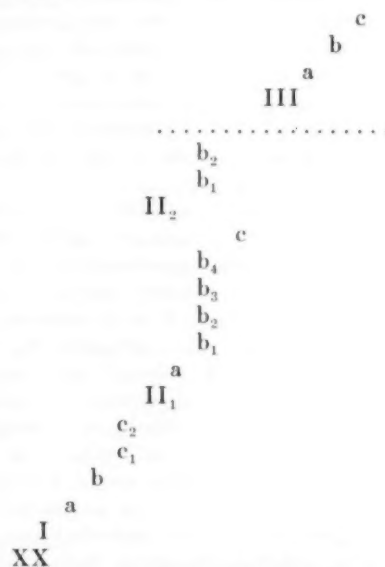
mentation, the writer believes that the 5x8 inches sheet serves more of these purposes than any other standard size. For one thing, it is large enough to hold a fairly large unit of information, either written or typed, while it may be punched or purchased to fit a standard loose-leaf notebook of very convenient size.

But the same indexing scheme may be employed in all cases where the information covers all phases of the professional work. The usual alphabetical index is utterly inadequate for the filing of professional (historical) data, reading lists, topics for term papers, selections from the sources, outlines, lecture notes, assignments, and a host of similar material. There are on the market several kinds of index tabs, in a variety of sizes and transparent colors, ready to be affixed to index cards when and where desired. In one instance, at least, tab material of this description can be obtained in four or five widths and in six-inch lengths, which may then be cut to any necessary length for use. Most of these commercial tabs are made of permanent materials, such as transparent celluloid, and so constructed as to contain or protect a small paper insert of the same size in each instance. The paper insert may be marked with any heading desired, limited, of course, by the size of tab used. For historical purposes, two or three widths and lengths of tabs may be used to advantage in the same file; smaller tabs being employed for successive subdivisions of subject matter.

The organization proposed rests first on a subject basis, and within the subject, on a quality basis. For the best advantage, both the color of the tab and its position in the file may be made significant. A single color, then, may be arbitrarily assigned to each general subject to be contained in the classification. For instance, blue may be taken to signify American History; red, English History; yellow, Methods in History, etc. Then it may be assumed that the materials relating to each of these general subjects can be roughly grouped into (1) Introductory materials (outlines, bibliographies, reading lists, assignments for work, etc.), (2) Organized (class, lecture or research) notes, and (3) Miscellaneous materials relating to the subject in hand (maps, notes taken at random and not organized, statistics, examination questions, pamphlets, etc.).

The usual order of the diagonal succession of tabs in the file is entirely ignored in this arrangement. One section of the file under each subject head is devoted to (1) introductory materials, another section to (2) organized notes, and the third to (3) miscellaneous materials; the tabs representing each successive *quality* or its subdivisions, running diagonally across the file (see illustration below). But within each section, successive tabs indicating subdivisions of the same quality heading are in all cases placed one behind the other in direct line. Thus, in the crude illustration below, XX represents the general subject tab, for, let us say, American History. The Roman numerals, I, II, and III, denote introductory, organized, and miscellaneous materials respectively. The letters a, b, c, etc., signify subdivisions in each case,

again on the basis of quality or character of materials rather than subject. For example, I-a would refer to subject or course outlines, plans of conduct, general purpose, etc.; I-b, general bibliography; I-c, miscellaneous introductory materials; II₁, with a tab bearing the word "Begin," might refer to the "Period of Colonial Beginnings"; II₂, marked "Colon," for instance, might refer to the second main division of the organized notes for American History, the "Early English Colonization"; and so on. II₁a, however, would denote detailed outlines, sectional bibliographies, etc., for the "Period of Colonial Beginnings"; II₁b₁, -b₂, etc., would thus contain the organized notes proper for the "Period of Colonial Beginnings"; while II₁-c would be the location of any more or less miscellaneous materials, printed or written, bearing particularly on the period or subject-matter contained in the "Period of Colonial Beginnings," and not on the subject of American History as a whole. Similarly, III would refer to miscellaneous materials relating to the whole subject of American History, while the tabs a, b, and c, make possible any desired arrangement or sub-classification of these materials.



As a matter of fact, for the purpose of more readily distinguishing the character of the materials in the file, the color scheme can be carried further very successfully. Color may be made to signify *both* subject-matter and character of materials filed, instead of the general subject-matter alone. For this purpose, colors may again be arbitrarily assigned to materials of introductory and miscellaneous character, it being assumed that the tabs denoting organized notes and the like are to agree with the main subject tab in color. For instance, if yellow be taken to indicate anything of an introductory nature, and white anything to be considered miscellaneous, the tabs in the above tabular view would run thus (red signifying the subject of American History): XX red; I, yellow; I-a, yellow; I-b, red; I-c, white; II₁, II₂, etc., red; II-a, yellow; II-b₁, -b₂, etc., red;

II-c, white; III, white; III-a, yellow; III-b, red; III-c, white. This is quite an elaborate arrangement, to be sure! but in actual use it causes no confusion, and it will probably be found a distinct aid. If this "refinement" of the general plan is to be used, the colors chosen to indicate introductory and miscellaneous materials should be retained uniformly throughout the file, even where the general subject tabs are chosen of one or the other color, *i. e.*, yellow or white, in the case cited.

The advantages of a system of this kind are many, and not altogether obvious. It is evident that not all of these subdivisions need be used in the construction of an index for every main subject in the file, but they are designed to provide for any contingencies which may arise and which would otherwise disarrange the entire index. In an arrangement of this kind, index cards with their tabs may be added or removed at will without impairing the operation of the scheme in any way. The organization and filing of any particular body of notes or other materials, then, may be changed at any time without necessitating the preparation of an entirely new set of index cards. These cards, once prepared, are practically permanent; changes in the typed or written tab insertions only being needed now and then, as the body of materials grouped under the general subject heading grows or changes in character. One great objection to most professional filing systems is that they tend to keep the series static and are not sufficiently mobile to promote reorganization, hence improvement, of the series. But with materials filed in a fashion similar to the one suggested, both by subject and character, a very considerable degree of flexibility, together with accessibility, is obtained.

All materials filed must needs maintain an upright position in the file. But to secure this, it is not necessary to employ stiff cards for note-taking purposes. Ordinary notebook paper can be filed with entire satisfaction; the index cards furnishing the necessary stability. The capacity of a cabinet is thus extended several times. For paper of each of the standard filing sizes there are manufactured convenient side-opening loose-leaf notebooks. If the papers and notes filed are punched to fit these, the owner is enabled to take materials from his file and place them *en masse* in the notebook for use in class or library. The index cards may also be punched and made to serve as an index to the materials in the notebook as they do in the file.

One other suggestion may be permitted which has to do with methods in note taking. In using notebook paper of the 5x8 inches or 6x9 inches sizes, at least, it will generally be found quite worth while to have a simple form printed on one side of each sheet: for filing purposes, both sides of the sheet should never be utilized. A two-point ruled or printed horizontal line near the top of the sheet (along the longer dimension) furnishes a good base for topical headings; another and vertical line to form a margin of an inch or more on the left provides space for references, citations of authority, etc., while another

vertical line, constructing a wide margin on the right amounting to approximately one-fourth of the total width of the sheet will prove of greatest value for many kinds of work. This space may be used for remarks and comments on materials excerpted in research studies, and it frequently saves re-writing a page when lecture notes are being prepared, expanded, or revised. It may be employed for jotting down illustrations, additional details, bibliographical data, and numerous other matters amplifying the main body of notes on the page. This arrangement the writer has found of the very greatest value in adding the element of flexibility and possibility of improvement to any body of notes worth being carefully done in the first place.

With respect to the filing scheme, the plan here suggested is probably far from perfect, although the writer has found it as here briefly outlined much more satisfactory than any of the several plans tried before. Perhaps the general idea can be adapted to varying needs and purposes without sacrificing those features which most recommend it. Its chief claim to consideration lies in the ease afforded of properly placing a great variety of materials in a file which can be expanded or contracted *ad lib.*, without difficulty or confusion, and in the equal ease of locating these materials, when filed, for instant use.

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PHILADELPHIA

An Experiment with Oriental History in the University High School, Eugene, Oregon

BY THORA SMITH, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY

I have for some time been impressed by the general ignorance prevailing among our people in regard to the Orient and the seeming lack of any desire on their part to know more of this subject. High school students are hardly aware that there is an Orient with a great history and a well established civilization. These conditions should not, and can not for long, continue to exist. Unless we familiarize ourselves with conditions in the East, we may at some time in the near future be very suddenly and unpleasantly awakened to the fact that there is a virile race of people in the Orient who have recently become progressive and one that gives promise of becoming more powerful in the future. So it was that, with these considerations in mind, when I was given a class in the University High School and told that I might use the class for any reasonable experimental purpose, I was inclined to experiment with Oriental history. My reasons for this selection might be summed up as follows:

(1) The proximity of our Pacific Coast to the Orient.

(2) Commercial relations that necessitate a better understanding of the people and a wider knowledge of the industries of the East.

(3) The prejudice, much of which is due to ignorance, that exists among our people against the Asiatic countries or races and against Japan in particular. A study of the customs and spirit of the people, recent history of the country, and existing conditions, may tend to bring about a better feeling toward the Japanese, and strengthen the good relations that have for some time existed between that country and the United States.

(4) The inherent satisfaction that comes from the study of the Orient. The people are interesting and possess a fascinating history. Some of the Oriental countries have a wonderful civilization—rooted in remote antiquity, and although quite different from ours—worthy of respect.

(5) The political status of the nations of the Orient. The remarkable progress made by Japan in recent years shows that she is a power to be reckoned with, and the somewhat sudden awakening of China and the present political upheaval demands our attention.

The nations studied were China, Japan, and the Philippines. A little time was given to India. The chief aim was to create an interest in the Orient in the hope that the students might be inspired to give more attention to these countries in the future. We studied present conditions, the geography, chief institutions, customs of the people, the spirit of the Orient, and very briefly the main incidents of their past histories.

One difficulty was the lack of any high school text,

but since the problem project plan of teaching was to be used, this situation was of little consequence. Through the assistance of Professor Griffin, of the department of history of the University of Oregon, of the University of Oregon Library, of the Oregon State Library, and the students of the class, who were ever on the alert for current articles on the subject, we managed to get together a fair library of material. The students, who were from the start very much interested in the course, suggested that we appoint a committee to make a bibliography of interesting current articles, also of books that we found interesting and helpful. It was also suggested that we keep a scrap-book. Pupils were encouraged to bring in articles and pictures of prominent Orientals. This was to serve not only as a source of information, but as a means of creating interest and encouraging pupils to give more attention to magazines and newspapers, thus accomplishing a double purpose.

The method used in conducting this course was, as already stated, a form of the project method. We had in mind a definite purpose and some special topics we wished to develop, then set ourselves to work on them. Our program in studying the different countries may be illustrated by the following condensed outline of procedure.

JAPAN:

(1) *Why we should study Japan.* This brought out, among other things, the prejudice against Japan, the need of better relations between that country and ours, the rank of Japan among the nations of the world, her ambitions, etc.

(2) *The geography of the country.* This topic we aimed to study thoroughly, as to location, topography, size, population, natural resources, condition of industries. A study of the geography of the country helped the pupils to understand Japan's desire to expand, her ambitions in China, and her present relations with that country.

(3) *The customs of the people and the religions of the country.* Easy to find interesting material on this topic.

(4) *National characteristics.* These (such as race solidarity, strength of family unit, reverence for the Emperor, intense patriotism, national sensitiveness, etc.), are not hard for pupils to discover. They are well outlined in Tuell's "The Study of Nations."

(5) *Education.* Present highly centralized system, extent of education, interest manifested, recent program—all these were briefly treated.

(6) *Government.* Present form studied and compared with European nations, attitude toward democracy, etc.

(7) *History of the country.* (a) Before the coming of Perry. (b) Since the coming of Perry. We did not attempt a study of the details of past history, but

treated some of the most important incidents and made a brief chronological summary.

(8) *Japan as a world power.* Discussions on the remarkable progress of Japan in recent years, her part in the World War, benefits derived from it, her place at the peace table, her present ambitions in the Pacific.

Sometimes all the students of the class would study the same topic and be prepared to give either written or oral reports on it, as may have been designated. At other times different topics would be assigned to different divisions of the class and the students would learn from one another in oral discussions. At times, special days were given over to the students to make reports on anything they wished which bore on the subject. This gave them opportunity to report on some particular magazine articles, legend or other interesting material that they had come across in their readings. Pupils like to give in class reports on subjects about which they think the other members of the class do not know. When they prepare a report they enjoy reading it to the class. Pupils were encouraged to read Oriental legends which portray the spirit of the Orient and the soul of its people, besides imparting knowledge in regard to the history of the country and the native customs.

Some books and magazines that the students were particularly interested in, and made use of in giving their special reports, are: "Japan in History, Folklore and Art," by W. C. Griffis; "Things Japanese," by Basil Hall Chamberlain; "Japanese Girls and Women," by Alice M. Bacon; "Stories from Chinese History," by A. S. Roe; "Mitford's Tales of Old Japan," "The Symbolism of Mythology in Relation to Japanese Art," by Alexander F. Otto and Theo. S. Holbrook; "When I was a Boy in China"; "Chinese Wonder Stories"; "The National Geographic Magazine"; and "Stories of Marco Polo."

In addition to the literary contributions, pupils brought to class Oriental objects of interest. We had at various times, such things as Oriental hand embroidery, chopsticks, Chinese newspapers, Japanese bibles, Japanese letters, Chinese and Japanese costumes of different designs were exhibited, all of which helped to maintain interest. A strong factor in making the work real, in securing adequate imagery and impressions and increasing and maintaining interest, was the showing of slides on the Orient, of illustrations in good books of art, of pictures in the "National Geographic Magazine"; of portraits of prominent Orientals given in the newspapers and in such magazines as "Asia."

Studying the subject as they did, by problem, the project plan, gathering material from different sources, it was not necessary to have recitations daily. On some days the whole period would be given over to supervised study. Certain other days were set aside for reports on specified subjects. These were followed by periods given over to general review, testing, and a brief summary. As previously indicated, there were still other days on which the students were allowed to make reports on pertinent subjects which they considered interesting. In these they were

allowed a great deal of leeway. We had reports from newspaper articles, Chinese and Japanese legends, mythical stories of creation, etc. These brought about class room discussions which developed judgment and led to historical-mindedness. In order that the pupils might not be confused by the discussions and that they might get the essentials, when we had completed a subject, we made a systematic summary of the work covered and this the pupils put into their notebooks.

Now, it may be asked, what conclusions may be drawn from the experiment. Should Oriental history be taught in high school? The curriculum is overcrowded now, some will say. There has been steadily growing a strong opinion in recent years that some of the history now taught in the high school should be eliminated, that much of the rest should be reduced and that more attention ought to be paid to the other social sciences such as sociology, economics, community civics, etc. Much is to be said for these proposed changes. But when I recall how well that class enjoyed the subject, how much they were interested in it, how little they knew about the Orient before taking the subject, and believing as I do that the Mongolian race is far from a decadent one, that China and Japan give promise in the future of becoming more powerful among the nations of the world, I am of the opinion that we should in the larger high schools, especially of the Pacific Coast, give the pupils an opportunity to obtain some insight into the conditions and problems of the Orient that the prevailing ignorance may not continue. If it does not seem possible to arrange a separate course in Oriental history, it might be well to have some chapters dealing with Asia taught in connection with European history courses. While the latter method is not the preferable one, it is certain that Asiatic history could be taught in connection with some phase of European history, *e. g.*, with Alexander's expedition into Asia; with the coming of the Mongol hordes into Europe under the leadership of Jenghiz Khan; then again with the stories of Marco Polo and other early European explorations. If the history of Asia is well taught and pupils become interested in it, they can cover with ease in the same length of time much more than they ordinarily do. In my opinion teachers of history might well give this plan some thought.

Following is a bibliography of books that were accessible to students and teacher. In addition to this, we also had among our collection a large number of magazines.

HISTORY

Latourette.—"The Development of China" and "The Development of Japan."—Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Almost every one who is interested in the history of Japan and China is familiar with these books. "The Development of Japan" gives a narrative account of the history up to the time of Perry, followed by chapters on the civilization of Old Japan, the period of transformation, and Japan as a world power. These books are not beyond the comprehension of high

school students and we found them valuable as reference books.

Clement.—"A Handbook of Modern Japan." A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

This book was found to be very helpful. The chapters are brief and to the point and it contains bibliographies on each subject. Contents are as follows: The People, Houses, Dress, Manners, Customs, Religion, The History of Old Japan, Education, Constitutional Imperialism, and Twentieth Century Japan.

Giles, Herbert A.—"The Civilization of China."—Henry Holt & Co. Good, very readable and interesting. Students like it.

Ross, E. A.—"The Changing Chinese." Very good in the hands of the teacher.

Barrows, David P.—"A History of the Philippines." Discusses conditions of Filipino before coming of Spaniard, dealing with the race, different tribes, culture; The Spaniard in the Philippines; the taking over the Philippines by the U. S.

W. E. Griffis.—"Japan in History, Folklore and Art."—Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Very well adapted to needs of high school students. We found this little book very good and it was much used by the students.

Gowen.—"Outline History of China."—Sherman, French & Co.

Gives an account of the rule of the different dynasties. His explanation of the meaning of different Chinese words and combinations of words commonly used should be helpful to the teacher.

Hart.—"The Obvious Orient."—D. Appleton Co., New York.

A good book for the teacher to read. Dwells upon the thought that it is Japan's ambition to be the civilizer of Eastern Asia.

Douglas, R. K.—"Europe and the Far East. 1506-1912."

Gives an account of the early intercourse between East and West. Not adapted to students of high school age—hard for them to read.

Kat Suro Hara.—"An Introduction to History of Japan" (date, 1920). Geo. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, Pub. Yamato Society Publication.

Note: Judging from the list given above, it will readily be seen that not many of the histories available are adapted to high school use.

A GENERAL LIST OF BOOKS

Bacon, Alice M.—"Japanese Girls and Women." This book gives a good idea of the domestic life of the Japanese, a good picture of the women and girls in the homes, their education, etc., and is interesting to both girls and boys of the high school.

Chamberlain, Basil Hall.—"Things Japanese." A very valuable little book. The manner in which the topics are treated appeals to high school students, as well as to grown-ups. Among topics, which are arranged in alphabetical order, are: Japanese People, Japanese Opposites to Us, Moral Maxims, Topsy Turvydom, History and Mythology, Treaties With Foreign Powers, notes on various subjects connected with Japan, etc.

Amori & Kochi.—"Diaries of Court Ladies of Old Japan," 1920. Houghton, Mifflin Co. This is a very attractive book consisting of diaries, written about the year 1000 (just recently brought together and put in book form). From them we get a glimpse into the history of that time, showing the enormous influence of the Chinese. The book contains some beautiful illustrations. Introduction by Amy Lowell.

Nitobe, Inaze. Of University of Tokio—"Bushido, the Soul of Japan."

Gives an account of the deeds of the Samurai during the feudal age, their devotion to duty, loyalty and honor. Since it is from that class that most of the leaders today are drawn, the book helps to understand many of the customs that prevail in Japan today and the strength of Japanese leadership.

Porter, Wm. N.—"A Hundred Verses of Old Japan."—Clarendon Press, Oxford.

Dewey, John.—"Letters from China and Japan."—E. P. Dutton & Co. These letters, written so recently by John Dewey and his wife from China and from Japan, need no recommendation, other than their authorship.

C. L. Brownell.—"The Heart of Japan."—Methuen & Co., London. Found in most of the public libraries, I think; interesting to high school students.

Lathrop.—"When I was a Boy in China."—Lee & Shepherd Co.

Lathrop.—"When I was a Boy in Japan."—Lee & Shepherd Co.

Van Bergen.—"A Boy of Old Japan."—Lee & Shepherd Co.

The last three mentioned are liked by younger students, and while somewhat out of date, give good ideas of customs of the people.

GEOGRAPHICAL READERS

Carpenter.—"Carpenter's Geographical Reader of Asia."—American Book Co.

Huntington, Ellsworth.—"Asia, A Geographical Reader."—Rand, McNally & Co.

Chamberlain, Jas. F.—"Oceania."—The Macmillan Co.

BOOKS THAT DEAL WITH THE ART OF JAPAN AND CHINA

Note: These books are listed, not from the viewpoint of the artist, but because of the historical interest created through use of the illustrations and the stories connected with them.

Fenellosa, Ernest F.—"Epochs of Chinese and Japanese Art." These books contain many illustrations and copies of interesting prints. Fenellosa spent a large part of his life in Japan and, perhaps more than any other man, saved to Japan old Japanese art when it was about to slip away because of the wholesale adoption of Western customs.

Otto & Holbrook.—"The Symbolisms of Mythology in Relation to Japanese Art." Accompanying the pictures this book gives the stories showing the significance of many of the subjects of Japanese art, e. g., the stories of Sakura or the Cherry Tree, Feng Hwong or the Ho Wo Bird, Amaterasu or the Sun Goddess, Bronze Lotus Leaf, Talsu the Dragon,

Fusiyama, etc. These little stories, simply told, satisfy the curiosity of students to know the significance of pictures they so often see.

Audsley, Go. A.—"Keramic Art of Japan." Contains many illustrations that students enjoy.

Ferguson.—"Outlines of Chinese Art." University of Chicago Press. Semmon Lectures. Art Institute of Chicago.

FAIRY AND MYTHICAL STORIES

Mitford, Freeman.—"Tales of Old Japan." A book of Japanese legends, historical stories, Japanese sermons, fairy tales, all of which do much to portray the spirit of Old Japan. Many of these translated stories are preceded by an explanatory introduction which is helpful, not only to a better understanding of the story, but in giving general information.

Pitman, Norman Hinsdale.—"Chinese Wonder Book."—E. P. Dutton & Co.

Very attractive book; children like it. A good book

to have in children's libraries.

A. S. Roe.—"Stories from Chinese History."—Fred A. Stokes & Co.

Contains mythical and hero stories that are connected with Chinese history; elementary, but older children enjoy it.

Chamberlain, Basil Hall.—"Things Japanese." Book discussed above. Good.

Griffis.—"Japan in History, Folklore and Art." Also discussed above.

(Note)—Since writing this article I have received a "Syllabus on Japan," by Kenneth Scott Latourette, and just recently published under the auspices of the Japan Society, Inc. Mr. Latourette, in his preface, gives some good reasons why we should study Japan; and in order that the information be unbiased advises laying the foundation for knowledge of the Orient in the class rooms of high schools and colleges as we are now doing for that of Europe. Anyone interested in the study of Japan would find this Syllabus very helpful.

Objectives and Methods in History

FRANCES N. AHL, M.A., EUREKA HIGH SCHOOL, CALIFORNIA

The ultimate goal of education in a democracy is "to develop in each individual the knowledge, interest, ideas, habits and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society to ever nobler ends."

With this as the definition of education each subject in the curriculum must answer the question: Why do I exist? What justifies me in my insistence on a place in the educational program for the youth of America?

How does the subject of history answer this question? How does it contribute towards the end of social efficiency? How does it justify its demands for a place in the high school curriculum?

History, I believe, because of the very nature of its content affords peculiar opportunity for the training of the individual as a member of society. It should accomplish this end through the development of the appreciation of the nature and the laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups and the intelligence and will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being.¹

History is "the science of men in their activities as social beings" or, simpler still, it is the life development of men; it portrays society's development in all phases—social, economic, political, religious, educational and cultural. It conveys to the people of today a knowledge of the past which information is of value in interpreting the present and anticipating the future. As Professor James Harvey Robinson says: "It is most essential that we should understand our own times; we can only do so through history and it is the obvious duty of the historian to meet this, his chief obligation."² Professor Harding in his discussion of what the World War should do for our history methods never spoke more truly than

when he said: "The war should enforce the old lesson just as the biologist and medical scientist invoke the aid of embryology and etiology in dealing with their problems, so the citizen and statesman need the aid of history in dealing with the practical problems of society. Almost none of the questions involved in the present war is capable of intelligent discussion save in the light of history—the war should teach us all to think internationally—and the history teacher without lessening the emphasis on our national ideals and duties must perform his part in helping to educate the rising generation to a sense of world citizenship."³

The dependence of today on yesterday appears in all things. Man himself, as Emerson puts it, is explicable by nothing save the past. What memory is to the individual, history is to the race. Hence a guiding motive in the teaching of history must be the interpretation of the present. Of course, history alone will not solve the problems of the twentieth century, but it will, when properly interpreted, give an understanding of them and such an understanding is necessary for solution of these problems. How can we solve the present Oriental questions unless we as a nation and as individuals first understand these problems? And how can we understand these problems without history? Why then in any history course teach of Admiral Perry and the treaty that opened Japan to American trade as an isolated fact? Why not trace the relations between Japan and the United States from that time until the Washington Conference and interpret the present problems? Why not make history vital? Why not tell that while Japan has been drawing nearer to us geographically until finally she was given mandate over the former German islands of the Pacific and established between the Philippines and our potential naval base at Guam, we through our annexations of Alaska, Hawaii, the

Philippines and the island of Guam have been reaching out across the Pacific to meet her? In fact, ever since we acquired Hawaii in 1898 there has been tense conflict for the mastery of the Pacific, a conflict which has apparently culminated with the decision of the Peace Conference, for previously Japan's annexations of territory and extensions of influence were not of such significance to us save in so far as Japan's expanding "spheres of influence" on the Asiatic mainland brought her in conflict with our doctrine of the "open door" in China. Now Japan is expanding in Eastern Asia, Hawaii and our own Pacific Coast. Her interests in Siberia conflict sharply with our international policies; her aggression in China, through her "Twenty-one Demands," menace our treaty rights in China and China's political integrity; her demand for control of the German cable station on the island of Yap and the granting of her wish by the League of Nations has disturbed our administration; while her enormous influx to the Hawaiian Islands and her lesser immigration into the Pacific Coast States has resulted in the present crisis. Why not fit history to the present day and its problems? For as Professor Dewey has said, "The past just as past is no longer our affair. If it were wholly gone and done with, there would be only one reasonable attitude towards it. Let the dead bury their dead. But the knowledge of the past is the key to the understanding of the present."⁴

But shall we wait until the student reaches the Modern or the American History course before we teach him of the Oriental situation? I believe that in Ancient History a few lessons, at least, should be given to each of the Oriental states in order that the young student has a fitting preparation for the study of modern life of those states. Where is our sphere of interest today?—in the Pacific. This recent shifting of interests from Europe to Asia, bears witness to the necessity for Far Eastern as well as Near Eastern and European History in our present course. History must take into account the sum total of human achievement—China, Japan, India, Indo-China and Siberia included. Of course, our present textbooks do not furnish the material; but no real history teacher is dependent upon a text. If adequately equipped, she does not need or desire a ready-made, stereotyped outline such as the text provides. No text is able to give an adequate treatment of all of the most important topics but deals primarily in generalizations and statements that require further reading and explanations. Furthermore the text is concerned first of all with the subject not the pupils, while the teacher must bear in mind not merely aims and methods of teaching history but aims and methods of teaching history to boys and girls—to pupils of varying capacities and in different surroundings, she must remember she is teaching in a public school system for "all the children of all the people." She will prefer to make her own outline and it will be continually in the making. She will be constantly evolving it to fit both the needs of the community and the vital problems of the day. She

will be constantly asking herself: What is there in this lesson for the pupils of my class on the basis of their capacities and needs and the demands of today? What is most necessary for them to know of the past in order to be as intelligent, efficient and happy as possible in the life they are likely to lead and the work they are likely to do? And she will ever bear in mind that "The most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times is our growing realization of the fundamental importance and absorbing interest of the common men and common things. Education has not been wont until recently to reckon seriously with the common man who must do common things. Our so-called standard works on history deal at length with kings and popes, with courtiers and statesmen, with wars waged for territory and thrones, with laws passed by princes and parliaments. But these matters form only a very small part of History."⁵

For the Oriental problems such books as Latourette, Kenneth Scott, *The Development of Japan*, Macmillan Co., and Ching, Sih-Gung, *Modern China*, Clarendon Press, Oxford, furnish excellent material. The special China and Japan issues of *The Literary Digest*⁶ are invaluable. *The National Geographic Magazine*⁷ has from time to time given splendid articles and abundant pictures on all of the Oriental countries. I have experimented—largely through assigned readings in magazines and visualizing material used with a projection lantern—with this problem in my Ancient History classes this year and the experiment has been most successful. All of the students have been extremely enthusiastic and eager to learn more of the Oriental nations and have given splendid co-operation by bringing in valuable pictures, newspaper and magazine material. They have begun, at least, to realize that America is a world nation, that the World War made them internationalists, and that as such they must take full cognizance of all the peoples of the civilized world and that they must understand the ideals, institutions, customs, motives and feelings of the Oriental peoples.

In each history course the teacher should endeavor to link up every series of historic events with the present. How much more tangible the study of ancient or medieval architecture, for example, is to the students, when the influence of that architecture is seen in the present! When students begin to recognize the Doric, Ionic or Corinthian columns wherever seen, or the influence of those columns, their history has a vital meaning. And so it is with every phase of the work. Why leave off the history of Egypt with the facts related in the textbooks? The story of Egypt must include a survey of the present unrest in Egypt and in the light of the past and knowledge of the present the boys and girls will come to an understanding of the situation. Why teach the Treaty of Verdun merely as a step in the disruption of Charlemagne's Empire? Why not trace its significance through history? Why not see how it marked the approximate boundaries of three modern states—France, Italy and Germany and how the struggle over Alsace originated? Why not compare the

boundaries of the Western Europe as effected by the Treaty of Versailles and those effected by the Treaty of 843 and through the light of the past understand the Western Europe of the present?

"One of the fundamental criteria for judging good history teaching," says Professor Tryon, "is the opportunity given the pupils during the progress of their work to do concrete and objective thinking. By noting comparisons and contrasts in past and present-day life, by seeing the beginning in the past of our present-day institutions and customs, by the constant illumination of the past by means of the present and *vice versa*, the students are afforded much opportunity for concrete and objective thinking—something greatly needed because of the abstract nature of so much of the material with which the students work."⁸

I do not believe in a "prescribed" day for the study of current events, but I look to the recent books, magazines and newspapers as affording valuable material for bringing our history down to the present; and I urge that the present be studied with the past to show the vital bearing of today on yesterday.

Again, the study of history involves not only facts but processes as well. It is impossible for students to understand what history really is unless they know how it is developed, unless they work on real problems in historical investigation—problems that require them to gather, classify, and criticize, at least in an elementary way historical materials. This should be a fundamental aim in the teaching of all history: the inculcation of historical-mindedness—the mental

attitude of the historian in his search for truth—the attitude which recognizes things as becoming, which sees in the past and present continuity, growth, evolution.

When knowledge is reorganized around a practical life center non-essentials are eliminated, self-activity and initiative are developed, interest and effort are aroused, independent thinking is stimulated, the students learn to compare, evaluate, understand and conclude, to look behind the printed page for the human motive that prompted the act. "Life is a process of solving problems and if history is to assist in the solution of life's problems, it must be taught in such a way as to give training in solving them. Since people in the past met and solved problems just as people today are meeting and solving them, it is the best sort of preparation for solving life's problems to go through the process of discovering how people in the past solved theirs."⁹ Sometimes it is well to state the entire lesson as a problem; or again, the problem furnishes an excellent means of review or a valuable topic for debate. "Doing"—as McMurray emphasizes it—is the keynote in this method of teaching.¹⁰

I believe a real effort should be made to develop the power of our boys and girls to imagine. This is not only essential to interest from the power it gives pupils to realize that after all history is not a mere accumulation of disjointed facts and useless dates as too many textbooks and teachers present it but the continuous story of real flesh-and-blood people not so very different from the people of today; but also

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imagination is necessary for the happiness and advancement of the individual student and the race for "an unimaginative people is an unprogressive people." I ask my students in Ancient History, for instance, to reconstruct the life of prehistoric man; to relate in the first person when I helped to build the pyramids; when I attended the Olympic games or Gladiatorial contests; when I consulted the Oracle at Delphi; when I went with Hannibal into Italy; when I led an invasion of the Northmen: or sometimes I ask them to imagine themselves back in the Feudal Age and to relate their experiences as they approach a Feudal castle and go through it. Sometimes we hold Athenian Assemblies or imagine we are an Athenian jury. Such exercises tax the imagination and historical information as well for they require the students to call up all the knowledge of their collateral reading and they furnish an atmosphere for the history in question. Sometimes, by way of variety, I have my freshmen classes play "guess games" with the Greek sculptors and writers or the Renaissance artists or the types of architecture. They tell all they know about the writer selected without mentioning his name or they describe the main characteristics of the Byzantine, Romanesque or Gothic architecture and cite the best examples of this particular type while the other students listen eagerly and vie with one another to see who will be first to "guess the game." This device is sometimes valuable to check up a class after talks with the projection lantern have been given on the Greek sculptors and writers, the Renaissance artists, or the types of medieval architecture.

If we history teachers are going to keep our students alert and mentally active we must constantly strive for an element of variety in our methods; the unexpected serves as a real purpose in rendering the class work interesting and lively. "The teacher who falls into a routine of method, varying it but little, will soon cease to be a person (pedagogically speaking) and become a machine. Method and personality in teaching are not antagonists but allies and the common foe of both is mechanism. One of the worst foes to the development of the teacher's personality is her tendency to depend upon the textbook for the organization and interpretation of the lesson instead of formulating her own aim and organizing the available material accordingly."¹¹

Much more illustrative material than is used in the average history class should be employed. I have visited history classes where pictures are never used or referred to—not because they are not available—where references are seldom given to charts, diagrams and maps. Yet these are the things that make history real, these are the things that make it vital. Illustrative material carefully selected and of various types is indispensable to the same teaching of history, without it history becomes a mere humdrum subject of little, if any, interest and of less value. Some realize that we cannot separate history and geography, that "The theater of events is a necessary part of their reality. It is in many cases the cause that produces them. Man makes his physical environment.

The story of his life is in any case inseparable from his physical environment. Geography describes this environment. It must, in describing it, include the works of man. History without geography and geography without history are alike unthinkable—European experience seems to indicate that the place to emphasize the geographical background of history is in the history course."¹² Is it not just as true that we cannot separate history and the pictures that explain it is we make our teaching what it should be?

Again I know "history teachers," and they are altogether too numerous, who slavishly follow the textbook chapter by chapter, page by page, and paragraph by paragraph, who ask questions on the text, not the subject, and expect the words of the text as given on "Page 57, paragraph 2," or "Page 111." When these teachers assign collateral reading it is in terms of pages, not topics, and as a result when their bewildered students look for the page references they have no idea of the topic to be considered, let alone the general content of the reference. They are reading "Channing Page 110-120," or "West Page 211-225," or "Myers Page 15-27." Collateral reading should be assigned not by pages, but by topics and assignments should be made not to other textbooks but to the best detailed works of the period. The teacher should make her assignments with a definite and specific purpose in mind and her purpose should never be merely to impose a task of reading so many "pages," but to suggest the best references that the students may become acquainted with them, that they will realize history is not within the covers of a book, and above all so that they will get a broader and better understanding of the period. I find it advisable to give out typewritten sheets of suggestive references that are available in the school and the city library whenever we enter a new field of study such as the Northmen in Europe, or the Medieval Church or the Renaissance and the Reformation. Then I often go a step further, particularly in the weaker sections, and suggest references especially good on the life of the Northmen, the place of the Northmen in European History, or the organization of the Church, or the real meaning of the Renaissance. I include in these lists books of mythology, references to historical novels and historical poetry for I am ever reminded of the fact that the teacher must create the illusion and the realization of past days and dead heroes; that myths, historical novels and poetry amplify and complete the accounts and inculcate an imaginative atmosphere.

Interest and enjoyment must be sought in our teaching of history but interest as a means, not an end. The teacher must literally be "on fire" with enthusiasm in her subject and her message, full of zeal of a well-controlled but vital interest in history and in her boys and girls, and she will arouse a like response from her class. And unless the students are enthusiastic and really enjoy their history how can this subject influence them for good? How long will the students continue to read history—past, present or future—after the actual class work is ended? Hence we must strive to cultivate lasting

intellectual tastes. This can only be done by making history a real joy and pleasure; by getting away from the old textbook method of political history, "made up of a bore of dates that refuse to stay memorized, and names triple-plated against imagination and as hard to connect with real life as it is to believe that mummies in a museum ever breathed and walked;"¹³ by putting more emphasis upon the economic, social and scientific factors in human development; by striving to make it all real; by each teacher formulating her own aims and adjusting her methods to fit her own boys and girls—methods that have plenty of variety that include project work, outlines, themes, maps, collateral reading, visualizing material; methods that will tax the imagination and thinking that will show the relation and significance of events, that will teach history as a continuous story; in a word, aims and methods that purpose to teach history to the present generation by giving such a complete and reliable picture of the past that it will be able to arrive at an intelligent comprehension of how and why the present state of civilization came to be. Then, and only then, will history contribute its fullest measure towards the

end of social efficiency; then and only then will it justify its demands for a place in the High School curriculum.

¹ Report of the Committee on Social Studies of N. E. A. (1916).

² Robinson, J. H. *The New History*. P. 80 (note).

³ *The Historical Outlook*, April 1919, P. 189.

⁴ Dewey, J. *Democracy and Education*.

Chap. XVI, *The Significance of Geography and History*, treats of history and geography as complementary subjects and relates history to the present social, economic and industrial life.

⁵ Robinson, J. H. *The New History*.

⁶ *The Literary Digest*, Jan. 7, 1922, Special Japan Number; Jan. 21, 1922, Special China Number.

⁷ *The National Geographic Magazine*. Mar. 1912, and Mar. 1922, Indo-China; Nov. 1920, China; Nov. 1912, and May 1921, Siberia; Nov. 1921, India; July 1921, Japan.

⁸ Tryon, R. M. *The Teaching of History in Junior and Senior High Schools*. P. 200.

⁹ *Ibid.* P. 84-85.

¹⁰ McMurray, *Special Method in History*.

¹¹ Foster, H. H. *Principles of Teaching in Secondary Education*. P. 46.

¹² Johnson, H. *The Teaching of History*. P. 394-397.

¹³ Nicolay, *Our Nation in the Building*, quoted in the *Nation*, Vol. 104, Feb. 15, 1917. P. 195.

What Shall We Seek From a History Project¹

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The essence of a project is a purpose. In history a variety of projects are possible. There might be so mild and inactive a purpose as merely to read for the story. For the most part our schools reject this as not strenuous enough for regular school time. Appreciably higher would be the purpose to understand any given event and relate it intelligently as effect and cause. This is probably what we have naively expected from our traditional textbook study of history. This, however, has not often been a project for the pupils, since as a rule the teacher alone has supplied the purpose. A more spectacular project, valuable if not too frequent, is a dramatic representation of some historic event. The appeal of this to many is very strong, and much good can be derived from it. For myself, I am still inclined to count as perhaps the most valuable history project of all, especially for the more advanced grades, the purpose to solve some problem located in a historic setting. This should be not the sole type of history project, but it should probably be for older pupils the most frequent. Two other types quite valuable and in danger of being overlooked as projects are, first, the purpose to organize for effective grasping and recall a period of history or a point of view, and second,

the purpose to fix in memory for future use the organization so made. I say these are in danger of being overlooked as projects. This is, I surmise, because we have so long set them as tasks, especially the last, that we have almost come to believe that pupils cannot or will not purpose them. The difficulty of securing such purposes must be admitted, but I for one totally deny the impossibility.

To fix ideas let us suppose a purpose of the problem type. A class purposes to answer the question: What did Mr. Hughes wish to get out of the Washington Conference and why?

What in general is the advantage of having the pupils feel the purpose to answer this problem? What difference does purposing make? The answer seems to me threefold. In the degree that the pupils do feel this purpose, in like degree are three desirable results more likely. First, they will work harder and will therefore more likely succeed in the efforts to answer the questions. Second, having a definite aim, they will have something by which to guide their search and to try their findings. This should mean better organization for attack and better organization of results. In particular the pupils are more likely to think abundantly by way of connecting one element in the problem with its possible related elements. This may mean a very valuable mapping of a field of enquiry. Third, the interest felt in the endeavor makes for the better learning of what is done. Methods of attack, sources of information, connections

¹ All rights reserved by the author. Reprinted from *School and Home*, March, 1922 (Published by the Parents and Teachers Association of the Ethical Culture School, New York City).

in thought, meanings seen, and conclusions reached, will be the better fixed for use in the student's mind and character. Having been learned in practical attack, they will be retained in readiness for practical application, and not as mere storehouse lumber useful only for examination purposes. To these three may be added a fourth, which is developed below, that besides the subject matter which is learned pertaining to this particular topic, there should have been made developments toward important allied attitudes and capabilities.

Let us now proceed to a consideration of the question asked in the title of this article. What does the intelligent teacher seek by way of outcomes from this history project? I cannot pretend to exhaust the list, but the following seem to me fairly indicated as the desired and probable results from a reasonably assiduous attempt to solve the problem:

1. That the pupils shall learn better how to attack such a problem; how to analyze it, how to find and use sources; how to organize material so found to the solution of the problem at hand.
2. That the pupils shall learn better how to think in such a field; how to judge their thinking, how to weigh evidence, and the like.
3. That they shall learn a considerable amount of the history, politics, and geography relating to the problems under discussion. This alone is what the traditional teacher seems to seek.
4. That the pupils shall grow in such desirable traits as open-mindedness, tolerance of others' views, belief that opinions should be based on study and regulated by the results of study.
5. That they make progress towards certain valuable social concepts, ideals, and attitudes;—as the "open door," national honor, orderly processes of

settling international disputes (instead of war), acceptance of our country's responsibility in international affairs, and the like.

6. That they shall develop interest in such matters as belong to the project at hand, in its wider as well as in its more specific aspects.

7. That they shall build such valuable personal attitudes as a reasoned self-confidence in working at such matters.

8. That they improve in such social virtues as courtesy, co-operation with others, and the like.

9. That they build a greater respect for interest and achievement in such intellectual and moral enquiries and endeavors.

Adequately to comment on this list would unduly extend this article, but I cannot forbear to point out that every time a class engages in such an activity or even its sham and counterfeit, the pupils do inevitably change themselves for better or for worse under each of the heads named. They either improve or deteriorate in methods of attack or they become more firmly fixed in their customary methods. They either increase or decrease in openmindedness or become more firmly fixed in their customary attitude in this trait. And so with all the others. We as teachers may refuse to think of these attendant learnings. We may if we wish fix our eyes exclusively on a certain list of facts of history counted to be essential to the educated person, and work for them only. But we cannot in this ostrich-like fashion escape the ineluctable fact that our pupils are none the less and all the time learning well or ill these other things. This manifold duty must be faced and consciously met. For my own part I believe that a regime of purposeful activity is the only way in which we can discharge this inevitable responsibility.

An Experiment in Practical Civics

BY SARA G. O'BRIEN, HIGH SCHOOL, ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

We have read much in our educational journals concerning the efforts made to function the curriculum of the public schools to the needs of the average American citizen. Vocational subjects have been added to the academic programs. Technical schools have been established in our large cities. Money so spent has been considered a splendid investment as it enables many boys and girls to leave school equipped for the business of earning a livelihood. We heartily endorse this phase of work accomplished by our educational system and realize that there is need for more intensive work in the line of technical training.

Yet we venture to touch upon another subject, which within the last decade or two has begun to attract national attention in our educational circles, viz: training for citizenship. It is not given to all to become carpenters, dressmakers, or milliners, but in our great republic all are called upon to take an active part in citizenship.

American citizens have taken for granted all the great privileges which are theirs by right of birth, but have given little heed to their parallel duties. This indifference of the public has been reflected in the *laissez faire* attitude assumed toward civics teachings in our public schools.

A girl does not learn to be a dressmaker by looking at a finished gown, or by reading a description of the same in a fashion magazine, neither does a pupil learn to be a citizen by reading over the Constitution of the United States, or the Charter of his home city, or by visiting the city council, or by learning the names of every public official in his city or state. The pupil will learn citizenship by being an active citizen during his school life.

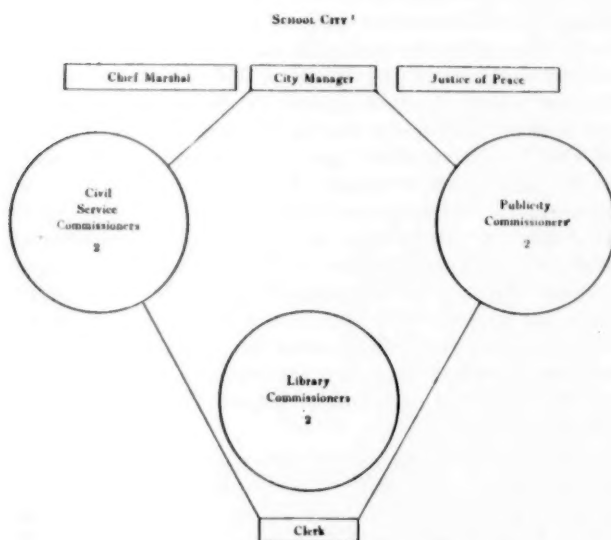
The solid foundation for permanent and effective democratic government rests on the right civic habits of all the people. These habits, if acquired at all, must be gained in the formative period of life, during

school days. The last two decades have seen a splendid new civics awakening in the minds of our educators. Great stress is now being put on the social science studies with the view of making our public schools respond to the practical needs of the community.

The writer is a staunch advocate of the fundamental educational principle of Froebel, "We learn by doing," and therefore she has devised a working scheme for live civics in her classes based upon important local, national, and international issues. The course is given in the eleventh grade in our High School and is a combination of American History, Geography, Civics, and Current Events. We have an excellent library connected with our school which contains the best and varied references on all phases of American history and government.

The work in geography is effectively done by the use of the McKinley series of outline maps. The current topics are selected from all the standard magazines, and most trustworthy newspapers. The recitation period is fifty-five minutes long. Three days of the week are devoted to textbook work or reports and discussions on collateral reading, or in the making of maps, visualizing the history lesson. One period each week is devoted to selecting and preparing the current topics, and the remaining period is given over to the oral reports on, and free discussion of, the topics.

The five sections in this course form what we call the Junior American Patriotic League. Each section is a school city. The writer will now submit the diagram of the form of school city government, followed by a description of the preparation made by one of the sections for a current topic meeting and the minutes of one of the meetings.



¹ The officers in the rectangles are elected by the citizens. The Commissioners are appointed by City Manager.

SCHOOL CITY CHARTER

ARTICLE 1.

Name, Object, Territory, Citizens, Powers.

Section 1. The name of this School City shall be the Junior American Patriotic League.

Section 2. The object of this School City is to foster student democracy and to train citizens in the correct practices of justice, kindness, economy, efficiency and of co-operating for every good purpose, in school, at home, and everywhere.

Section 3. The territory of this School City shall be Room B-15.

Section 4. Citizenship. Everyone who is a pupil in Room B-15 shall be a citizen of this School City, and may be elected to office.

Section 5. Powers. The School City shall have the right to make and to enforce laws.

ARTICLE 2.

Rights and Duties

Section 1. Rights. Citizens shall have the right to nominate and elect officers.

Section 2. Duties. It is the duty of the city to protect the rights of all citizens, and promote the general welfare, and of the citizen to be obedient to every lawful authority.²

ARTICLE 3.

Officers, Nominations, Elections, Terms

Section 1. There shall be a City Manager to see that the laws are obeyed, a Justice of Peace to decide all cases, three groups of commissioners, viz., civil service, library and publicity, all appointed by the City Manager.

Section 2. There shall be a Chief Marshal, City Clerk, and other officers that the city may deem necessary, to be elected by the citizens, or appointed by the City Manager.

Section 3. Term. The term of office shall be two weeks.

Section 4. An officer shall not be re-elected to serve more than two full terms in succession.

ARTICLE 4.

Amendments

Section 1. This charter may be amended by a three-fourths ($\frac{3}{4}$) vote of the members voting at a meeting called for that purpose, provided that notice of the voting shall have been given at least three (3) school days before said election shall be held.

ARTICLE 5.

Duties of the City Manager

A. The City Manager shall preside at all meetings.

B. He shall at every meeting, call for the minutes of the last meeting, from the clerk.

C. He shall put before the class any topic for discussion that is of interest to the majority.

D. He shall call for current event topics from those who have been assigned such.

E. He shall call for a report from the three commissioners if it is deemed necessary.

F. The power of appointing or dismissing the different commissions shall be vested in him.

² The suggestions for Articles I and II of the School City Charter are taken from Wilson L. Gill's, *A New Citizenship*.

G. In case of his necessary absence the clerk will preside over the meeting.

ARTICLE 6.

Duties of the City Clerk

A. The City Clerk shall each day take the roll and record all cases of absence or tardiness.

B. In case of the absence of the City Manager the City Clerk shall preside over the meeting.

C. At each meeting the City Clerk shall read the minutes of the meeting preceding.

D. The clerk shall give a list of the pupils who are to give topics or tell about pictures to the Library Commissioners. These lists are to be arranged so that all can take part in exercises.

E. In case of the absence of the City Clerk, the City Marshal shall preside.

ARTICLE 7.

Duties of the Justice of Peace

A. To issue warrants for arrests.

B. To fix the date for trial.

C. To try all cases brought to his attention.

D. To render the sentence and fix the fees.

ARTICLE 8.

Duties of the City Marshal

A. To serve warrants issued by the Justice of Peace.

B. To bring the person before the Justice on the day of his trial.

C. To keep order during the trial.

ARTICLE 9.

Duties of the Library Commissioners

A. Library Commissioners shall each month post a list of references on the bulletin board of B-15 concerning the month's work. These references shall be available in the library.

B. Library Commissioners shall distribute current topics found in the current magazines and papers in B-15 to the pupils whose names appear on the lists made out by the City Clerk.

ARTICLE 10.

Duties of the Civil Service Commissioners

A. To care for and distribute all maps belonging to the members of their respective classes.

B. To hang up all pictures and editorials of interest.

ARTICLE 11.

Duties of the Publicity Commissioners

A. On the day assigned for current topics they shall report on all pictures and cartoons, and explain them to the class.

B. The Publicity Commissioners may appoint certain members of the class to explain certain designated pictures or cartoons.

C. When it seems advisable the Publicity Commissioners will write articles for the "Optimist," or other periodicals, stating the events and doings of the Junior American Patriotic League.

ARTICLE 12.

Ratification

This charter having been granted by the teacher and ratified by the unanimous vote of the citizens, takes effect immediately.

Teacher.....

Date

All current topic sections of the Junior American Patriotic League decided to devote the week following Armistice Day to the study of the Washington Conference on Limitation of Armament.

Therefore the sections assembled at their respective recitation periods for the purpose of selecting topics and pictures for the report recitation.

The Clerk handed the Library Commissioners the list of pupils who were to prepare special reports, articles dealing with various phases of the Washington Conference were chosen by the Library Commissioners from the following magazines, viz., *The Literary Digest* of November 12, the *Review of Reviews* and *Current History* of November; Rotogavures from the picture section of the *New York Times*, and *Washington Star* were selected.

The time allotted for each report is from three to five minutes. All members of all sections are to be prepared on the general subject chosen each week so as to contribute some item of interest or ask some intelligent question.

Five topics were assigned for special preparation and two groups of pictures.

The minutes of the meetings of one section which will now be submitted will show the nature of the topics given. The kind of pictures described and the general discussion by pupils.

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF SECTION TWO OF OUR SCHOOL CITY, HELD IN ROOM B-15, ON FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 18, 1921.

The meeting was called to order at five minutes past nine by the City Manager, Gladys Smith. The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved. The first speaker called on was Robert Pierce, who gave a report on "Former Conferences that failed and succeeded." He found the material for his report in the *Literary Digest* of November twelve and the *Independent* of November fifth. This report was made very interesting by contributions from other members of the section. Edna Worden added valuable information which she had gained by some research work on Peace Conference attempted between the "Truce of God" of the middle Ages and the peace movements of the nineteenth century. She discussed the aims of Congresses called by (1) George Podiebrad, King of Bohemia in 1462; (2) the Permanent Congress of Nations proposed by Emeric DeLavoix in 1623, and (3) the Project of Perpetual Peace called in 1712 by Abbe de Pierré. The question was raised by a member of the section "Why hope for so much from this conference when so many similar ones have failed?" In the general discussion which followed Esther Burnham said:

"Our government called this conference prompted by unselfish motives." "The whole world is war weary and America's part in the World War has created great faith in America's ability to deal justly with the international problems," was added by Gladys Clark. "The Personnel of the Arms Conference," from the November *Current History*, was given by Hester Eppens. She discussed the leading characteristics of Hughes, Balfour, Kato, Briand, and

Wellington Koo. Virginia Hendrickson then showed rotogavures from the picture sections of the *Washington Star* and the *New York Times* of the exterior and interior views of the Continental Memorial Hall and the Pan-Building where the sessions of the Conference are being held. She described the architecture of the latter, the beauty of its typical Latin-American Patio, the fountain designed by Gertrude Vanderbilt Whitney, the Aztec figures pictured in the tiled floors, its grand stairways, and the Hall of the Americans. Franz Coe told of the Continental Memorial Hall and its small but beautiful auditorium, which seats only one thousand persons. Secretary Hughes' opening address to the Conference, which was delivered at the Continental Memorial Hall, was

outlined by Edna Snyder. She described his proposed Naval Holiday and sweeping reductions in capital ships. Helen Burnam discussed the article which Arthur W. Dunn contributed to the November *Review of Reviews*, "America at the Washington Conference."

Jennie Kircher then explained the "Problems of the Conference," from the article in the *Literary Digest* of November twelve. The questions of the Pacific Problems she outlined clearly by using the map which the *Digest* submitted with the article. A general discussion of the problems stated in her topic followed and Richard Frost was asking about the "Open Door Policy" when the ten o'clock gong struck and the meeting adjourned.

MARY ANN SMITH, Clerk.

Student Participation in History of Today

CONTRIBUTED BY AN AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVICS CLASS OF THE MILWAUKEE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL

This experiment of which the following is a report had as its basis the problem: To what extent can a class in American History and Civics influence public opinion? This problem was developed and worked out as a project in the form of an Armistice Day program by a class in American History and Civics at the Normal School of Milwaukee.

The actual experiment with subsequent developments came as a result of intensive study and discussion of the theory of the project-problem method of teaching. Subjecting the theory to its practical application was recognized as a final test. The approach of Armistice Day with the event of the convening of the Conference on the Limitations of Armament offered unprecedented opportunity. Several days of open discussion at which time individual thoughts, ideas and opinions were expressed and debated culminated in the decision that the class would depict the Washington conference on Armistice Day, presenting it as a project to fourteen hundred students in the school auditorium. The plan was big, necessitating as it did that it be perfected in the course of three weeks by twenty-four students, girls. The difficulties involved are immediately obvious. The question as to who should actually represent the characters incidental to the dramatization was eliminated by the class decision that the co-operation of the men students of the school should be enlisted. Organization into committees followed as the next definite step: Each committee assumed entire and exclusive responsibility for one of the nations involved; this responsibility including the writing of the speech of that nation, the choosing of the men qualified to depict the characters of the particular delegation, and incidental relating details. This important part of the general scheme implied that current papers, magazines, comments, speeches, every possible authoritative source be read and noted carefully for the purpose of securing insights and views as to the probable procedure of the nations involved.

As may be anticipated, the plan assumed almost colossal dimensions, developing as it progressed unforeseen complexities and additions becoming, finally, three fold in part.

A second outgrowth followed immediately, suggested directly by Mr. Will Irwin's profoundly impressive speech on "The Next War." Under the direction of chosen committees, a campaign of two minute speeches on disarmament to the student body of the school, covering a space of ten successive days, the speakers being representative students and faculty members, was launched and carried to successful conclusion as a fitting prelude to the program proper. The two minute talks had this immediate effect—a resolution favoring disarmament was voted by the student body and sent to President Harding on the day of the meeting of the conference delegates. Furthermore, eight other Normal Schools of the state were requested to co-operate in influencing public opinion on this question.

So expansive and extensive became the one time simple unadorned idea that it is almost impossible to trace its course with any degree of coherence and unity. The class resolved itself into various sub-committees such as committee on programs, publicity and decorations, the actual work being thus divided. To one of these committees is due the addition of a second and third scenes to the original one scene contemplated, the second scene taking the form of a working scene depicting the conference delegates at work with secretaries and stenographers, the third scene speculating on the ideal conclusion of the conference. The two minute prayer at eleven o'clock was likewise observed.

At this point the program was thought to be completed, but it was unanimously approved that special honor be publicly paid the service men of the school. A tree planting ceremony participated in by all the members of the school resulted. This included the marching of the service men in military formation,

the planting of the elm, a dedicatory speech by one of the service men, and a response by the president of the school, this ceremony preceding the conference reproduction.

We would be pleased to know whether this experiment is fairly representative of the project method. We feel that its values to us are innumerable, although many of these values are intangible. To what extent we influenced public opinion on disarmament is difficult for us to estimate but we feel confident that this influence was far-reaching.

This project-problem throughout its development was characterized by the significant feature of the "new education," that the centre of gravity is the class, not the instructor. This is attested by the fact that all concrete, fundamental, suggestions such as the dramatization itself, the two minute speech campaign, the enlistment of the co-operation of eight other normal schools, and finally the submitting of this article as a conclusion were initiated and realized by the class itself working co-operatively upon its own initiative.

CATHERINE O'GRADY,
Chairman of Committee on Report.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL,
TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Introduction to the Science of Sociology. By Robert E. Park and Ernest W. Burgess. University of Chicago Press, 1921. 1040 pp. \$4.50.

Trade Unionism and Labor Problems, Second Series. Edited by John R. Commons. Ginn & Company, Boston, 1921.

Professors Park and Burgess have prepared their volume of readings through a period of years, during which they have carefully tested it in mimeographed form with college classes, and the result is a college textbook in sociology which is the best of its type. The volume may well serve an entirely different purpose, supplying a collection of material of the greatest value to the busy high school teacher struggling with the new courses in "social science" and "problems of democracy." Its scores of extracts, varying in length from 200 to 3000 words, are drawn from scholars and thinkers representative of a wide range of opinion and point of view. These are carefully classified in thirteen chapters under such headings as "Human Nature," "Society and the Group," "Social Interaction," "Social Forces," "Social Control," "Collective Behavior," and "Progress." In these chapters a uniform plan of treatment is followed, which may be illustrated by Chapter XIV, "Progress." First, there is an introduction of twelve pages discussing the concept of progress and its history, the nature of the social problem, and the classification of materials; second, a body of "Materials," thirty-five pages of extracts from Spencer, Comte, Hobhouse, Ward, Dewey, Balfour, Galton, Sumner, Bryce, Bergson, and others; third,

three pages of "Investigations and Problems," six pages of bibliography, lists of topics for written themes and of questions for discussion. Chapter I treats in 60 pages of "Sociology and the Social Sciences." There is a full table of contents, a general index, and an index of names. This volume, like several earlier ones in the same series such as Marshall's "Readings in Industrial Society" and Hamilton's "Current Economic Problems," is a compilation of great value to the high school teacher of the "social subjects."

Professor Commons' volume is made up of forty articles varying in length from six to forty pages and grouped in five parts, devoted respectively to Security, The Labor Market, Labor Management, Labor Unions and The Law. Intended as a college textbook, somewhat on the plan of the case group method in law schools, this volume also is a particularly useful one for high school teachers of the "social subjects." It brings together in one volume articles dealing with accident compensation, social insurance and health programs, unemployment, scientific management, systems of payment, profit sharing, apprenticeship, shop committees, minimum wage laws, tendencies in trade union development, the transition in judicial decisions from the old legal abstractions and individualism to a growing recognition of the new industrial conditions, collective bargaining before the Supreme Court, and so on. It is the latest addition to the series including Ripley's "Trusts, Pools and Corporations" and Wolfe's "Readings in Social Problems."

A School History of the United States. By Nathaniel Wright Stephenson and Martha Tucker Stephenson. Ginn & Company, Boston, 1921. 544 pp. \$1.60.

This latest addition to the list of grammar school texts purposes to apply the problem method to "a school course in American history, truly nationalized, both in matter and in method." The effort to organize the story under interpretative heads is praiseworthy. Part I treats of "The Establishment of a Free Country" and Part II, of "The Building of a Great Power," Part I being subdivided under the headings "How Europeans Came to America," "How the English Founded a Nation," "How the British Empire Broke in Two," and "How the New Republic Became a Prosperous Country." The subdivisions in Part II are problems of equal interest. The problem idea is not consistently sustained and the review questions at the ends of the chapters need careful selection by the teachers.

The clear leaning toward that uncompromising variety of nationalism known as chauvinism rather than the broad-minded, discriminating kind which is wholesome in its influence, is regrettable. Any American textbook of 1921 will treat sympathetically the Allied cause and American participation in the World War, but in this text the accounts of the German-American relations prior to 1914 and of the foreign policies of the Great Powers and international politics down to 1914, are misleading and unhistorical.

The proportions of the book follow some of the

better tendencies of the time: 133 pages are allotted to the United States as a World Power; the explorers are treated with brevity; emphasis is placed on the growth of the West and its marked influence upon the evolution of democratic ideals and industrial development is stressed. The treatment of the wars, however, gives too much attention to military events and too little to great associated movements, except in case of the War of 1812. The Revolutionary War is better treated than in the older texts. The extent to which the course of events in America was influenced by Europe during the period 1789-1816 is greatly underestimated.

Mechanically, the book is well produced. The pictures are well used though some of them are fanciful sketches.

MARION Q. CLARK.

Cleveland Heights (Ohio) Schools.

Community Life and Civic Problems. By Howard Copeland Hill. Ginn & Company, New York, 1922. pp. xx, 528, xxxiii.

Mr. Hill is head of the department of social science in the University of Chicago high school. Here and in similar schools in different parts of the country the material of this book was used and tested for three years in mimeograph form. In the light of criticism received from those who were, during this time, using the material, the defects which were discoverable have been eliminated. The product of this painstaking and thorough work is a text of remarkable completeness and balance, freeing the reviewer from the ungracious task of adverse criticism.

The material has been carefully analyzed in the table of contents so that the inexperienced teacher can easily arrive at the vertebrae of the course. In the treatment of topics the author has sought to adjust his work, in the light of practical experience, to the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association, thus promoting the very much needed tendency toward unanimity among the devotees of the social studies.

The book is meant for the younger high school pupils. Therefore the two hundred or more carefully selected illustrations are of practical pedagogical value, successfully showing the community in action. There are almost none of the stereotyped and usually meaningless pictures of buildings or of persons. Of similar excellence are the pedagogical helps at the end of the chapters such as the "Questions and Problems," "Topics for Compositions" (for use when English and social studies are being correlated), "Readings for Pupils," and "Readings for Teachers."

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College.

Greater Roumania. Clarke, Charles Upson. New York, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1922. 477 pp. \$3.50.

This book is a well-balanced combination of the geographical, political, racial, economic, social, artistic, literary, linguistic, and personal. There are five chapters on the geographical and economic; the land, the Danube, the mountains, the products and

the resources; four about Bukovina, Bessarabia, Transylvania, and the Banat; and four concerning Roumania's intervention in the World War. Two of the succeeding chapters deal with the Roumanian campaign against Bela Kun and Hungary, one with the Peace Conference, four with Roumanian art, architecture, peasant life, language and literature; one describes audiences with the king and queen, another sketches *Some Notables of Bucharest*, two reveal the work of the American Relief and of the American Red Cross in Rumania, one deals with agrarian legislation; and lastly, two chapters discuss Roumanian conditions today, external and internal. The reader notes the well annotated though brief bibliography and the very usable index, the excellent maps (which however would be more excellent if better colored), and the fourteen interesting illustrations.

The author is pro-Roumanian, but at least he gives answers to many of the accusations leveled against Roumania during the last few years and the reader undoubtedly feels less ready to criticize her. While the book is not without errors and exaggerations—for example, that Roumania makes "of all the Succession States . . . the deepest and most dramatic appeal to our sympathies and our co-operation" (p. 453)—yet it does not give the impression of studied unfairness. Some official documents, such as treaties, enhance its value. Works of real value on Roumania in English are not common; probably more satisfaction and less disappointment can be gained from this book than from any other one book.

A. I. ANDREWS.

Tufts College.

Economic History of the United States. By Thurman W. Van Metre. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1921. 672 pp. \$3.00.

Professor Van Metre's account of the economic development of the United States follows the well-beaten path marked out by earlier works on the same subject. After a brief survey of the economic life of the colonial period and the reactions of British colonial policy upon colonial industry and commerce, the author traces the early struggle of the new nation to establish its economic independence of Europe. Then follow chapters on the inauguration of the American System; the great westward expansion and its economic significance; the development of large scale production in the period following the Civil War; the growth of industrial combinations and the efforts at governmental regulation; the growth of the consciousness and power of labor with the resulting struggle between organized labor and organized capital. The volume closes with an account of the significant economic effects of the World War upon the United States.

The story is well told but is quite conventional. The author presents no fresh point of view and appears to have missed entirely those deeper and subtler reactions of economics upon the political and social life of America. Adequate consideration of Professor Beard's two books on the *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution* and *The Economic*

Foundations of Jefferson Democracy, and of Professor Schlesinger's *Colonial Merchants and the American Revolution*, might have added much to the value of the book.

NELSON P. MEAD.

College of the City of New York.

An Economic History of Rome to the End of the Republic. By Tenney Frank. Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1920. 310 pp. \$2.50.

In this important addition to the growing list of economic histories the author has presented the results of a thorough and critical study of literary and archaeological remains, coins, and inscriptions, and he has personally examined on the ground the soils, agricultural methods, and quarries of today. In no other book has there been brought together such a body of information and it has been critically tested and sifted. Professor Frank shows that in early Latium there was a denser population and a more intensive cultivation of soil, and that the early commercial relations of Etruria and Rome were more important, than we have hitherto supposed. His chapters on industry are especially important and enlightening and he includes valuable discussions of agriculture, commerce, coinage, capital, the laborer, and social classes. The work is one of permanent value and it is to be hoped that the author will publish a similar study of the Roman Empire, treating the conditions of the Mediterranean world and the exceedingly interesting problems of the tragic decay that began in the third century and culminated in the collapse of ancient civilization.

New Masters of The Baltic. By Arthur Ruhl. E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1921. 239 pp. \$4.00.

This book reclaims from oblivion one of those many unfamiliar areas suddenly thrown into high relief upon the map of Europe by the Great War.

The author has not attempted a serious study of the history of the new Baltic republics, but has produced a rather popular and journalistic account. He has aimed to "trace the main steps in the transition period" of Finland, Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania from dependence to independence, covering their separation from Russia, the rise to power of their native majorities, and the ensuing recognition of their freedom. Moreover, he limits his method to that of an eye-witness, giving detailed descriptions of the people and their local scenes.

Both its omissions and inclusions fulfil the avowed aim of the book. The lack of anything but the briefest interpolations of historical background, of study into the causes of the social revolutions, of bibliography and index, definitely exclude it from that class of concise historical treatise (such as Orvis' Poland) dealing with recent nationalist issues. On the other hand, its vivid accounts of the revolutions in action, the clear-cut portraits of their dominant lead-

ers, the charming and accurate pictures of eighteenth century feudal life, replete with every aristocratic tradition, as lived in the twentieth century by the Balt Barons, and the unusual opportunities for close personal observation, place the book in the better-class group of travellers' records.

Mr. Ruhl has contributed the fullest account, so far, in English, to a field of recent history wherein only the scantiest material exists. In focussing popular attention upon this territory, he has prepared the way for a more detailed historical treatment of an increasingly important section.

MARY EVELYN TOWNSEND.

Teaches College, Columbia University.

Primitive Society. By Robert H. Lowie. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1920. 463 pp. \$3.00.

The lack of a general manual representative of present day knowledge and opinion in the field of anthropology has been especially unfortunate for the workers in related fields, such as social history and sociology, Professor Lowie has in part supplied this need, and almost the only complaint to make about his very important volume is that its title is too promising, for the book neglects such subjects as religion, magic, folklore, art, and moral notions, and confines itself (as the author frankly announces in his Introduction) to social organization—marriage and the family, the sib, property, associations, rank, government, justice.

The work combines thorough scholarship, critical alertness, and independent thinking with a lucid style and a particularly objective treatment. Always the concrete cases are cited to illustrate the problems and issues or to justify the generalization, and this method is used even in the summary of conclusions in the final chapter. The pioneer contribution of Morgan's *Ancient Society* is recognized but as a present day authority he is compared to a pre-Darwinian naturalist. Prof. Lowie deals ruthlessly with many popular sociological myths, for example the theory of the "matriarchate," the idea that polygamy is necessarily a sign of feminine inferiority and regarded as a degradation by women, the belief that primitive woman was invariably the drudge, or that turbulence and violence were common in primitive society.

The student in this field is peculiarly in danger of pitfalls of reasoning, not only because of the intrusion of prejudices but of the excessive difficulty of escaping sufficiently from his modern mental attitudes and habits to gain some understanding of those of primitive men. Over and over again in this book we are shown how unwarranted inferences have been drawn in the past, and how surprising, to us, the real facts may be. The crude assumptions of the theory of unilinear evolution are effectively destroyed, and we are shown the multiplicity, variety, complexity, and intricacy of early social institutions and relations. Like recent anthropological studies in other fields, it offers no support to culture epoch theories. There is a bibliography and a good index.

Freedom of Speech. By Zechariah Chafee, Jr. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1920. 431 pp.

In this volume a professor of law in Harvard University has set himself the important task of surveying historically and legally the whole question of civil liberty with which the country had to wrestle during the Great War and the post-war period. The general legal issues involved are discussed in the opening chapter, followed by accounts and discussions of Federal and state laws and their application by the courts, including legislation against sedition and anarchy, the deportations, the expulsion of socialists from legislative bodies, and freedom and initiative in the schools. Appendices provide a classified bibliography, index of cases under the Federal Espionage Acts, Text of the Espionage Act of 1918, list of state statutes affecting freedom of speech, and other material, and there is an index of cases and a general index.

Regardless of one's opinion about the path the country followed during these years, the subject is one of prime importance, and it is extremely fortunate that so competent and able an authority has undertaken a task of such difficulty and one demanding courage as well as skill and learning. But just those readers who are most sympathetic with Mr. Chafee's strong feeling against the repressive policies are likely to regret his too-frequently polemical attitude, without which his solid and thorough scholarship, legal acumen, and able reasoning would have been all the more impressive. The book stands alone, and no teacher of the social subjects can afford to miss reading it.

Book Notes

Professor Ferdinand Schevill's *Political History of Modern Europe* is one of the best of the old style manuals of political history, scholarly, clear and readable, its text supplemented by maps, genealogical tables and bibliographies. In a new edition (Harcourt and Brace, New York, 1921; 662 pp.; \$2.50), the concluding chapter of the 1907 volume, "On the Threshold of the New Century," is replaced by a new chapter on "The Characteristics of European Civilization at the Beginning of the Twentieth Century," in which science and the Industrial Revolution, democracy, nationalism and imperialism are the subjects of suggestive but regrettably brief comment. Then follow chapters on "European Diplomatic Relations from 1871 to 1914 and the Outbreak of the Great War," and "The War and the Peace," which are devoted in the main to a good sketch of the rival imperialisms of the period told with a conscientious effort to be objective and impartial.

General Robert E. Lee After Appomattox, edited by Professor Franklin K. Riley, is devoted to the career as a college president of the great Confederate leader. In connection with the Semi-Centennial Memorial of Washington and Lee University the

Trustees arranged for the collection of facts and reminiscences about Lee's connection with the institution, appealing to all the "Lee Alumni" still living. The volume naturally contains a good deal of mere eulogy and is handicapped by the delay of half of a century in collecting the material. While it does not modify the accepted estimate of Lee's character and career, it does confirm and picture again the rare nobility of character and splendid spirit in which he met the terrible problems confronting the South and himself personally in 1865, and it gives some idea of the methods by which he made a remarkable record of achievement in his brief five years as a college president. (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922; 250 pp.; \$2.50.)

Professor W. T. Morgan's *English Political Parties and Leaders in the Reign of Queen Anne, 1702 to 1710*, won the Herbert Adams Prize for 1919. It is the product of the study of many manuscripts and printed sources in the archives of England and Holland, reports of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, numerous pamphlets of the period and other primary material, and is a successful attempt to rewrite the history of this eight years' period in the light of new evidence that has become available during the past quarter of a century. New information about events and new estimates of some of the leading characters are effectively presented. (Yale University Press, 1920; 426 pp.)

Days of the Discoverers, by L. Lamprey, presents a group of thrilling tales of adventure so entertainingly told that the reader almost smells the salt breezes and sees the wide uncultivated wastes of the new land. Junior high school pupils would read it with pleasure and the elementary school teacher may obtain from it an atmosphere that will help to enliven the stories of Spanish, French, English, and Norse adventure. Unfortunately, not so much can be said

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for its historical accuracy, and like the historical novel, it is a book which it would be safer to read after acquaintance with more scholarly accounts of the period. John Smith's tales of Turkish adventure are accepted without question; Verrazanno enters Chesapeake Bay, but not New York Harbor, and Americus Vesputius is all that John Fiske represents him. The characters are highly idealized. The teacher who would like to use the book for its vivid pictures of adventure should carefully read the critical account in the first volume of Channing's *History of the United States*. (F. A. Stokes & Co., New York. \$2.50.)

O. B.

The director of junior high school grades and citizenship in Rochester, New York, Mr. Charles E. Finch, has prepared *Everyday Civics* for children of adolescent age. Beginning with a very brief chapter on the organization of the school as a community, he passes to some regulation community civics material, but gives far less attention to the problems of the community and of economic and social life than do most of the writers in this field. About half of the book is more nearly akin to "civil government" than to what is now being offered generally to eighth and ninth grade pupils. The tone is patriotic in the conventional sense. (American Book Co., New York, 1921. 326 pp.)

D. E.

The Citizen and the Republic, by James A. Woodburn and Thomas F. Moran (Longmans, Green, 1921; 424, xlv, pp.), is a more extensive revision of the earlier text of the same name than a first glance at the contents would indicate, and the new form is fully up to date in matters of fact. The chapters and chapter headings remain the same except for the addition of a chapter on Taxation. The commonplace pictures remain.

In *Profits, Wages, and Prices* (Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1920, 256 pp., \$2.00), Professor David Friday attacks the difficult and controversial problems of distribution of wealth in the light of war and post-war conditions. Quoting extensively from official statistics, he holds that the war did indeed lead to immense increase of profits, which have declined however since 1917 despite rising prices, because of high taxes and more costly and less efficient labor; and that of the "enormous war profits" not over a fourth or fifth "was actually spent by the stockholders," the remainder going "for taxes, for loans to finance the war, and to furnish the funds for industrial expansion." High prices in America he attributes to extraordinary war demands rather than to inflation of currency and credit. The excess profits tax is vigorously defended, with a denial that it promotes high prices. "The source of higher real wages must be found in production and not in redistribution of the product of industry" (p. 236). The book gives a useful collection of figures and a shrewd and stimulating analysis.

A. S. Turberville's *Medieval Heresy and the Inquisition* is a brief and popular account divided evenly between the story of the heresies and that of the Inquisition. The author has used the works of Lea and later writers and not a few of the contemporary

sources, and he writes with a scrupulous effort to be objective and fair and in most entertaining style. Despite some statements that are open to question the narrative is on the whole trustworthy. Bibliography of 10 pages and index. (London, 1920; New York, Dutton, 1921; 264 pp., \$4.00).

Dr. Isaiah Bowman, Director of the American Geographical Society, has undertaken the ambitious project of providing in one volume a comprehensive survey of the conditions and problems, as they affect international relations, of *The New World* that is the product of the Great War. (World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y., 1921; 632 pp., \$6.00). "Problems in Political Geography" is the subtitle, and the 34 chapters deal with every part of the earth. More than two hundred maps are as important as the text, and there are 65 illustrations from photographs. At some points the historical allusions and ventures into prophecy are open to criticism, but in the main it is a work of first rate scholarship, bringing together an immense amount of classified information that is nowhere else available in such convenient form. Teachers and classes will find it of great value in such fields as modern history, geography, international relations, and current events.

Modern Social Movements (H. W. Wilson Co., New York, 1921; 260 pp.), prepared by Savel Zimand under the auspices of the Bureau of Industrial Research, provides "descriptive summaries" and bibliographies on trade unionism, the co-operative movement, national industrial councils, the Plumb plan, the single tax, socialism, guild socialism, syndicalism, Bolshevism, and anarchism. Dr. Charles A. Beard contributes a short introduction in which he vouches for Mr. Zimand's competence. The bibliographies, which make up the larger part of the work, are extensive, up to date, and give full details and sometimes annotations for the titles quoted, though inevitably there are some important omissions and some questionable classifications. Many of the definitions of terms are so vague as to be valueless, but the summaries of fact are helpful. It is a very useful little volume for students and teachers working in these fields.

Professor Malcolm Keir's *Manufacturing Industries in America*, though written for the business man, is a decidedly useful volume for the teacher of industrial history, economics, or economic geography. The first chapter gives a brief sketch of the resources of the United States in relation to business opportunity, the second an admirable summary of the development of manufacturing, the third discusses the localization of industry, and the fourth "The Unappreciated Tin-Peddler." Except for a concluding chapter on tendencies the remaining two-thirds of the book is devoted to certain great industries—iron and steel, cotton, wool, leather, shoes, paper, and others. It is a book that might be very profitably used for collateral reading in colleges and high schools. (Ronald Press Co., New York, 1920; 324 pp., \$3.00).

Lytton Strachey's *Queen Victoria* holds the interest and draws the reader on like an absorbing novel. Not only is the Queen vividly, and mercilessly pic-

tured, or rather made to live and move before us, but a whole series of other lifelike portraits are presented—among the most striking those of Prince Albert and some of the ministers, Melbourne, Palmerston, Gladstone, and the unctious Disraeli, laying on the flattery for royalty "with a trowel." There is no attempt even to sketch the history of the age, which is touched only to the small degree that is essential for the background of the personalities that are portrayed and the character studies that are presented. The study is based largely on memoirs, diaries, and other documents, which are cited in the footnotes throughout. It is safe to say that the book will take rank as a classic of biography, and with its predecessor, *Eminent Victorians*, will influence the future of that branch of literature. (Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1921; 434 pp., \$5.00).

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Mar. 25, 1922 to April 29, 1922

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Cazenove, Theophilé. *Cazenove journal; 1794; a record of the journey of Theophilé Cazenove through New Jersey and Pennsylvania.* Edited by R. W. Kelsey. Haverford, Pa.: The Pennsylvania History Press. 103 pp. \$1.80.
- Fish, Carl R. *Introduction to the study of United States History.* Madison, Wis.: Univ. of Wis.; Correspondence Study Dept.; Univ. Extension Division. 75 pp. 60c.
- Martin, Stuart. *The Mystery of Mormonism.* New York: Dutton. 318 pp. \$7.50.
- Morrison, Alfred J., Editor. *Travels in Virginia in Revolutionary Times; 1769-1802.* Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Co. 138 pp. \$1.50.
- Regents (The) questions and answers in American history and civics covering the requirements of high schools and college entrance. New York: Regents Pub. Co., 32 Union Square. 160 pp. 60c.
- Schlesinger, Arthur M. *New viewpoints in American History.* New York: Macmillan. 299 pp. \$2.40.
- Stebins, Charles M. *Tammany Hall, its history, organization and methods.* Brooklyn, N. Y.: Stebbins & Co., 1127 Union St. 96 pp. 30c.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Botsford, George W. *Hellenic History.* New York: Macmillan. 520 pp. \$4.00.
- Burkitt, Miles C. *Pre-history; a study of early cultures in Europe and the Mediterranean basin.* New York: Macmillan. 438 pp. (10 p. bibl.) \$11.00.
- Heitland, William E. *Agricola; a study of agriculture and rustic life in the Greco-Roman world from the point of view of labour.* New York: Macmillan. 492 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$16.00.
- Kelso, James A. *A history of the Hebrews in outline down to the restoration under Ezra and Nehemiah.* Pittsburgh, Pa.: Western Theological Seminary. 54 pp. (2 p. bibl.) \$1.00.
- Ure, Percy Neville. *The origin of tyranny. [a history of the Greek political tyrants in the sixth and seventh centuries, B. C.]* New York: Macmillan, 374 pp. \$12.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Davis, Muriel O. *The story of England; pt. 1, to the death of Elizabeth; pt. 2, from James I to the death of Queen Victoria.* New York: Oxford Univ. Press. 234 pp. Each, \$1.15.
- Greenwood, Alice D. *History of the people of England, Vol. I, 55 B. C. to A. D. 1485.* New York: Macmillan. 388 pp. \$3.25.
- Hearnshaw, Fossey J. C. *Democracy and the British Empire.* New York: Macmillan. 205 pp. \$1.75.

- International Conciliation. 1. Correspondence between Mr. Lloyd George and Sir James Craig on the position of Ulster. 2. Articles of agreement establishing the Irish Free State. 3. Irish Free State (agreement) bill; April, 1922. New York: Am. Assn. for Internat. Conciliation.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Edmundson, George. *History of Holland.* New York: Macmillan. 464 pp. (11¼ p. bibl.) \$7.50.
- Ford, Guy S. *Stein and the era of reform in Prussia, 1807-1815.* Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 336 pp. \$3.00.
- Gilliard, Pierre. *Thirteen years at the Russian court. [Author was the former tutor of the Czarevitch.]* New York: Doran. 304 pp. \$6.00.
- Regents (The) questions and answers in modern European history covering the requirements of high schools and college entrance. New York: Regents Pub. Co., 32 Union Square. 128 pp. 60c.
- Scheffer, J. G. de Hoop. *History of the Free Churchmen called the Brownists and Pilgrim Fathers in Holland.* Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus and Church. 265 pp. \$3.00.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Benezet, Louis P. *Young people's history of the world war.* New York: Macmillan. 481 pp. \$1.20.
- Hase, Georg von. *Kiel and Jutland.* New York: Dutton. 233 pp. \$6.00.
- McCullagh, Francis. *A prisoner of the Reds; the story of a British officer captured in Siberia.* New York: Dutton. 346 pp. \$5.00.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

- O'Leary, De Lacy. *Arabic thought and its place in history.* New York: Dutton. 320 pp. \$5.00.
- Summerbell, Martyn. *The rebirth of Europe, a study of the middle ages.* Boston: The Stratford Co. 189 pp. \$2.00.
- Tout, Thomas F. *France and England; their relations in the Middle Ages and now.* New York: Longmans, Green. 168 pp. \$2.50.
- Wulf, Maurice M. C. J. de. *Philosophy and civilization in the Middle Ages.* Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 313 pp. (8 p. bibl.) \$3.00.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Jackson, Thomas G. *The renaissance of Roman architecture; pt. 1, Italy.* Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 200 pp. \$10.50.
- Powell, E. Alexander. *Asia at the Crossroads; Japan-Korea-China-Philippine Islands. An interpretation of Far Eastern policies.* New York: Century Co. 368 pp. \$3.00.

BIOGRAPHY

- Chamberlin, Frederick. *The private character of Queen Elizabeth.* New York: Dodd, Mead. 325 pp. \$5.00.
- Margutti, Albert, von, baron. *The Emperor Francis Joseph and his times.* New York: Doran. 379 pp. \$6.00.
- Coolidge, Louis A. *Ulysses S. Grant.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 596 pp. \$4.00.
- Lyons, Maurice F. *William F. McCombs, the President-maker.* Cincinnati: The Bancroft Co., 301 Mercantile Library Bldg. 147 pp. \$1.50.
- Walker, Joseph. *The story of George Washington.* Newark, N. J.: Barse and Hopkins. 182 pp. \$1.25.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Beard, Charles A. *The economic basis of politics.* New York: Knopf. 99 pp. \$1.50.
- Fassett, Charles M. *Handbook of municipal government.* New York: Crowell. 192 pp. (9¼ p. bibl.) \$1.50.
- Federal Trade Information Service. *Treaties and resolutions of the Conference on limitation of armament as ratified by the United States Senate.* New York: Federal Trade Information Service, 175 Fifth Ave. 60 pp. 50c.
- International Conciliation. *Washington conference on the limitation of armament; pt. 2. Treaties and Resolutions.* New York: Am. Assn. for Internat. Conciliation. 151 pp.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- A Concept of History, III. Claude C. H. Williamson (*Parents' Review*, April).
 Disease and History. John Bell (*Dalhousie Review*, April).
 Homer and the Prophets, or Homer and Now: History and Historicity. Cornelia S. Hulst (*Open Court*, April).
 The Purpose of the Decemviral Legislation. Jefferson Elmore (*Classical Philology*, April).
 Reconstruction in the Augustan Age. Elizabeth H. Haigh (*Classical Journal*, April).
 Disintegration of the Roman Empire and Augustine's City of God. E. G. Sihler (*Biblical Review*, April).
 Paul's Roman Citizenship as Reflected in His Missionary Experiences and His Letters. Rev. James L. Kelso (*Bibliotheca Sacra*, April).
 Prehistoric Peru. Julio Tella (*Inter-America*, April).
 Peruvian Traditions. Ricardo Palma (*Inter-America*, April).
 The Emperors of Japan. F. Hadland Davis (*Calcutta Review*, March).
 The Economic Background of the Reformation. Charles M. Jacobs (*Lutheran Church Review*, April).
 Some Aspects of Town Life in the Past. Malcolm Letts (*Contemporary Review*, April).
 San Martín. Bartolomé Mitre (*Inter-America*, April).
 The Ecuadorian Campaign, 1821-1822. Carlos A. Vivanco (*Inter-America*, April).
 The History of Chemistry in China. William H. Adolph (*Scientific Monthly*, May).
 The Ludwig-Missionsverein. Rev. Joseph A. Schabert (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
 The Treaty of Tordesillas and the Argentine-Brazilian Boundary Settlement. Mary W. Williams (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
 The Resignation of Bismarck. George Saunders (*Quarterly Review*, April).
 The Negroes in Mauritius. A. F. Fokeer (*Journal of Negro History*, April).
 Democracy at San Marino. William Miller (*History*, April).
 The Government of Argentina. Austin F. Macdonald (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
 The Central American Union. Edward Perry (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
 New Constitutional Tendencies in Hispanic America. Manoel de Oliveira Lima (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
 How Hungary's Chickens Came Home to Roost. Emanuel Urbas (*Current History*, May).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

- Cornish Saints and Kings. W. J. Ferrar (*London Quarterly Review*, April).
 The Professional Pricker and His Test for Witchcraft. W. H. Neill (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).
 Anglo-French Trade Relations under Charles II. D. G. E. Hall (*History*, April).
 Eighteenth Century Highland Landlords and the Poverty Problem. Margaret I. Adam (*Scottish Historical Review*, April).
 Napoleon and the British Navy after Trafalgar. Sir Julian Corbett (*Quarterly Review*, April).
 South Africa, 1795-1921. Capt. H. Birch Reynardson (*Army Quarterly*, April).
 Our Ex-Service Men (British) after 1815. Commander Lord Teignmouth (*Nineteenth Century and After*, April).
 Dominions Old and New. Charles Morse (*Dalhousie Review*, April).
 The Correspondence of Sir John A. Macdonald. Sir John Willison (*Dalhousie Review*, April).

THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The American Effort. Erich von Ludendorff (*Atlantic Monthly*, May).

- The Inside Story of the A. E. F. George Pattullo (*Saturday Evening Post*, April 29).
 A Legend of the Marne, 1914. Lieut.-Col. H. G. de Watteville (*Army Quarterly*, April).
 Colonel Hentsch's Part in the Drama of the Marne. E. W. Sheppard (*National Review*, April).
 The Champagne-Marne Defensive (continued). Capt. J. S. Switzer (*Infantry Journal*, April).
 Operations of the Horse Battalion, 15th (German) Field Artillery with the 7th Cavalry Division in Northern France, August, 1914. Lieut.-Col. A. Seeger (*Field Artillery Journal*, January-February).
 The Battle of the Sambre (Charleroi-Mons) August 21-24, 1914. Capt. G. C. Wynne (*Army Quarterly*, April).
 Field Service of the Coast Artillery in the World War. Col. R. H. C. Kelton (*Journal of the United States Artillery*, April).
 Intelligence Service in the World War. Capt. C. S. Coulter (*Infantry Journal*, April).
 Egypt and Sinai, 1914-1917. (*Army Quarterly*, April).
 The Australian-American Tank Action at Hamel, July 4, 1918. Col. Conrad S. Babcock (*Infantry Journal*, April).
 Menace of the German Army. George N. Trioche (*Infantry Journal*, April).
 German Cavalry Charges. Brig.-Gen. J. E. Edmonds (*Army Quarterly*, April).
 Truths from the German Front. Col. George Rublen (*Journal of the United States Artillery*, April).
 "Review of and Comments on a recently published pamphlet written by Kurt Hesse, a German officer, by Major H. Merz, of the Swiss military, from No. 22, October 29, 1921, *Allgemeine Schweizerische Militärzeitung*."
 Some Lessons of the Naval War. Lord Sydenham (*Quarterly Review*, April).
 Military Revelations of the Late Herr Erzberger. (*Army Quarterly*, April).
 The Ohio State University in the World War. Wilbur H. Siebert (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, April).
 Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books. (*Army Quarterly*, April).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- Are American School Histories too Pro-British? Raymond Turner (*Landmark*, April).
 American-English History. S. S. Duncan (*Oregon Teachers Monthly*, April). "What should be the attitude of teachers and pupils in the study of our relations with England?"
 American Ideals and Traditions. Lindsey Blayney (*North American Review*, May).
 Christopher Columbus and His Great Enterprise. Arthur P. Newton (*History*, April).
 Uniform of the Army. Col. Laurence A. Curtis (*Infantry Journal*, April).
 The Native Tribes of Virginia. David I. Bushnell, Jr. (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
 Virginia First. (*Tyler's Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, April).
 The First University in America, 1619-1622. W. Gordon McCabe (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
 The Real Beginning of American Democracy: the Virginia Assembly of 1619. Mary N. Stanard (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
 Lord Baltimore and His Freedom in Granting Religious Toleration. William King (*Records of the American Catholic Historical Society*, December).
 The Administration of Benjamin Fletcher in New York. Alice Davis (*Quarterly Journal of the N. Y. State Historical Association*, October).
 Père Antoine, Supreme Officer of the Holy Inquisition of Cartagena, in Louisiana. Rt. Rev. F. L. Gassler (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
 Conrad Alexandre Gerard and American Independence. Elizabeth S. Kite (*Records of the American Catholic Historical Society*, December).

- The Autographs of the Signers. Frederick M. Hopkins (*Magazine of History*, October, 1921).
- The Adams Family. Worthington C. Ford (*Quarterly Review*, April).
- The Virginia Dynasty. (Tyler's *Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, April).
- Alexander Hamilton and the Limitation of Armaments. Samuel F. Bemis (*Pacific Review*, March).
- Leadership in Virginia. (Tyler's *Quarterly Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, April).
- The Middle States and the Embargo of 1808. Louis M. Sears (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).
- The Policy of Albany and English Westward Expansion. Arthur H. Buffinton (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- Origin of Washington Geographic Names (continued). Edmond S. Meany (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Virginians on the Ohio and the Mississippi in 1742. Fairfax Harrison (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- The Settlement of the Valley (Virginia). Charles E. Kemper (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- Before the Gates of the Wilderness Road: the Settlement of Southwestern Virginia. Lyman Chalkley (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- An American Ship-BUILDER for Spanish California. Ralph S. Kuykendall (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February). John F. Morgan, of Boston, Mass., 1788.
- The Beginnings of the Railroads in the Southwest. R. S. Cotterill (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- The Loss of the *Tonquin*. F. W. Howay (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April). Vessel leaving Astoria in 1811, seized and destroyed by natives of Vancouver Island.
- Three Anti-Slavery Newspapers Printed in Ohio prior to 1823. Annetta C. Walsh (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, April).
- Study of Cuban Bibliography relative to the Monroe Doctrine. Carlos M. Trelles (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February).
- The Indian Policy of the Republic of Texas. I. Anna Muckleroy (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Americanism of Andrew Jackson. Frank J. Klingberg (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).
- History of the Know Nothing Party in Indiana. Carl F. Brand (*Indiana Magazine of History*, March).
- The Work of the Sisters of Mercy in the United States, 1846-1921 (continued). Sister Mary Eulalia Herroa (*Records of the American Catholic Historical Society*, December).
- The Building of a State: the Story of Illinois. A Milo Bennett (*Journal of the Illinois State Historical Society*, October, 1920).
- Illinois Women of the Middle Period. Arthur C. Cole (*Journal of the Illinois State Historical Society*, October, 1920).
- The Relation of Philip Phillips to the Repeal of the Missouri Compromise in 1854. Henry B. Learned (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March).
- Pro-Slavery Propaganda in American Fiction of the Fifties. H. Jeanette R. Tandy (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, April).
- The Background of the Purchase of Alaska. Victor J. Farrar (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, April).
- Character Sketch of General Ulysses S. Grant. Hugh L. Nichols (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, April).
- The Political Campaign of 1875 in Ohio. Forrest W. Clonts (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, January).
- Negro Congressmen a Generation after. Alruthus A. Taylor (*Journal of Negro History*, April).

Notices

Anglo-American Historical Committee. It is proposed to hold an extended session of this Committee on July 5, 1922, at the Institute of Historical Research, Malet Street, London, W. C. 1. All American and Overseas Professors of History will be welcome. It would be a convenience if those who wish to be present would communicate with the Secretary, Institute of Historical Research, from whom further particulars can be obtained.

Social Studies in the Summer Schools

Arrangements are being made for conferences on the social studies at most of the leading summer schools, including California, Colorado, Columbia, Chicago, Cornell, Harvard, Illinois, Iowa, Iowa State College, Johns Hopkins, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New York University, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Syracuse, Texas, Virginia, Wisconsin, Florida.

These conferences, which will be held in co-operation with the National Council for the Social Studies, will take up for discussion some of the leading problems now confronting those who would increase the effectiveness of teaching in this field.

It is not proposed to make a serious effort to attract large numbers to these conferences, but all who are vitally interested in their purpose will be welcome to contribute. The purpose is to bring together those professors, teachers, and school administrators who are determined to promote the effectiveness of the social studies and who happen to be in a particular summer school, in order that they may exchange views and propose ways and means.

The minutes of the conferences will be kept for the use of the National Council for the Social Studies and will be collated in the offices of the organization for publication in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

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